

# The British Dominions Year Book 1924



1807.

*Issued by the*

EAGLE, STAR AND  
BRITISH DOMINIONS  
INSURANCE CO., LTD.  
BRITISH DOMINIONS HOUSE,  
ROYAL EXCHANGE AVENUE,  
LONDON, E.C.3



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Aberdeen.

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THE BRITISH DOMINIONS YEAR BOOK 1924.







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# THE DELEGATES TO THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE

*Front Row, left to right:* The Maharajah of Alwar, the Duke of Devonshire, Mr. W. F. Massey, Lord Curzon, Mr. Mackenzie King, Mr. Stanley Baldwin, Mr. S. M. Bruce, Lord Salisbury, General Smuts, Mr. W. R. Warren, Lord Peel, Mr. Desmond Fitzgerald. *Back Row:* Professor Rushbrook Williams (India), Mr. McGlilgan, Mr. Thompson (New Zealand),

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# The British Dominions Year Book 1924

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*Edited by*

EDWARD SALMON, F.R.C.I.

*and*

JAMES WORSFOLD, F.C.I.F.

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*Published by the*

Eagle, Star and British Dominions  
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*Head Office:* — BRITISH DOMINIONS HOUSE  
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# Contents.

| <i>Frontispiece</i>                                                                    | PAGE |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|
| THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE                                                                |      |
| Calendar . . . . .                                                                     | 10   |
| Introduction . . . . .                                                                 | 11   |
| Events While Printing . . . . .                                                        | 12   |
| The General Election . . . . .                                                         | 13   |
| The 1923 Conferences . . . . .                                                         | 17   |
| By J. SAXON MILLS                                                                      |      |
| India :—                                                                               |      |
| I. The Position in 1923 . . . . .                                                      | 31   |
| By SIR MICHAEL O'DWYER, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.                                             |      |
| II. Indians Overseas . . . . .                                                         | 48   |
| SIR TEJ BAHADUR SAPRU's Speech                                                         |      |
| III. Professor Rushbrook Williams' Report . . . . .                                    | 54   |
| The Geographical Position of the British Empire . . . . .                              | 55   |
| By VAUGHAN CORNISH, D.Sc.                                                              |      |
| An Empire Synopsis . . . . .                                                           | 68   |
| Foreign Politics . . . . .                                                             | 77   |
| By J. ELLIS BARKER                                                                     |      |
| New Flags of Europe . . . . .                                                          | 95   |
| By CECIL KING.                                                                         |      |
| Eight Pages of Flags in Colour . . . . . <i>facing page</i>                            | 96   |
| Ministers and Parliament in 1923 . . . . .                                             | 104  |
| By W. V. ROBERTS                                                                       |      |
| The Navy and Army . . . . .                                                            | 119  |
| By E. CHARLES VIVIAN                                                                   |      |
| Autograph Portrait of the Rt. Hon. Stanley Baldwin,<br>M.P. . . . . <i>facing page</i> | 128  |
| Aeronautics . . . . .                                                                  | 131  |
| By C. G. GREY                                                                          |      |
| The Earthquake in Japan . . . . .                                                      | 149  |

|                                                                        | PAGE |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|
| National Finance . . . . .                                             | 151  |
| By RICHARD KEEGAN                                                      |      |
| Revolutionaries and British Wealth . . . . .                           | 160  |
| By SIR LEO CHIOZZA MONEY                                               |      |
| Money Based on the World's Goods . . . . .                             | 165  |
| By C. H. CHOMLEY                                                       |      |
| Trade with the Empire . . . . .                                        | 174  |
| By DAVID W. CADDICK                                                    |      |
| Trade Wheel of the British Empire . . . . .                            | 184  |
| Board of Trade Returns . . . . .                                       | 187  |
| The Labour Year . . . . .                                              | 190  |
| By ANTHONY HILL, B.Sc.                                                 |      |
| Rent and Mortgage Interest . . . . .                                   | 198  |
| By HERBERT STROUD                                                      |      |
| The Cotton Position . . . . .                                          | 207  |
| The Crisis in Agriculture . . . . .                                    | 209  |
| Industrial Insurance . . . . .                                         | 217  |
| By EDWIN OLIVER                                                        |      |
| (With Notes of Interviews with Lord Askwith and<br>Mr. W. A. Appleton) |      |
| The World's Shipping Troubles . . . . .                                | 225  |
| By SIR ERNEST GLOVER                                                   |      |
| Lloyd's Register Returns . . . . .                                     | 234  |
| The Wealth and Prospects of China . . . . .                            | 236  |
| By J. ELLIS BARKER                                                     |      |
| Science and the Tropics . . . . .                                      | 248  |
| By SIR DANIEL MORRIS, K.C.M.G., D.Sc.                                  |      |
| Education in 1923 . . . . .                                            | 263  |
| By JAMES STANLEY LITTLE                                                |      |
| Women's Interests . . . . .                                            | 282  |
| By MARY MACLEOD MOORE                                                  |      |
| Sport in 1923 . . . . .                                                | 292  |
| By GERALD FITZGIBBON                                                   |      |
| Index . . . . .                                                        | 318  |



# 1924 CALENDAR 1924

## JANUARY

|      |   |    |    |    |    |
|------|---|----|----|----|----|
| Sun  | - | 6  | 13 | 20 | 27 |
| Mon  | - | 7  | 14 | 21 | 28 |
| Tues | 1 | 8  | 15 | 22 | 29 |
| Wed  | 2 | 9  | 16 | 23 | 30 |
| Thur | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | 31 |
| Fri  | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | -  |
| Sat  | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | -  |

## FEBRUARY

|      |   |   |    |    |    |
|------|---|---|----|----|----|
| Sun  | - | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 |
| Mon  | - | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 |
| Tues | - | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 |
| Wed  | - | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 |
| Thur | - | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 |
| Fri  | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 | 29 |
| Sat  | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 | -  |

## MARCH

|      |   |   |    |    |    |    |
|------|---|---|----|----|----|----|
| Sun  | - | 2 | 9  | 16 | 23 | 30 |
| Mon  | - | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | 31 |
| Tues | - | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | -  |
| Wed  | - | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | -  |
| Thur | - | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 | -  |
| Fri  | - | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 | -  |
| Sat  | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 | 29 | -  |

## APRIL

|      |   |    |    |    |    |
|------|---|----|----|----|----|
| Sun  | - | 6  | 13 | 20 | 27 |
| Mon  | - | 7  | 14 | 21 | 28 |
| Tues | 1 | 8  | 15 | 22 | 29 |
| Wed  | 2 | 9  | 16 | 23 | 30 |
| Thur | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | -  |
| Fri  | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | -  |
| Sat  | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | -  |

## MAY

|      |   |    |    |    |    |
|------|---|----|----|----|----|
| Sun  | - | 4  | 11 | 18 | 25 |
| Mon  | - | 5  | 12 | 19 | 26 |
| Tues | - | 6  | 13 | 20 | 27 |
| Wed  | - | 7  | 14 | 21 | 28 |
| Thur | 1 | 8  | 15 | 22 | 29 |
| Fri  | 2 | 9  | 16 | 23 | 30 |
| Sat  | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | 31 |

## JUNE

|      |   |    |    |    |    |   |
|------|---|----|----|----|----|---|
| Sun  | 1 | 8  | 15 | 22 | 29 | - |
| Mon  | 2 | 9  | 16 | 23 | 30 | - |
| Tues | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | -  | - |
| Wed  | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | -  | - |
| Thur | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | -  | - |
| Fri  | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 | -  | - |
| Sat  | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 | -  | - |

## JULY

|      |   |    |    |    |    |
|------|---|----|----|----|----|
| Sun  | - | 6  | 13 | 20 | 27 |
| Mon  | - | 7  | 14 | 21 | 28 |
| Tues | 1 | 8  | 15 | 22 | 29 |
| Wed  | 2 | 9  | 16 | 23 | 30 |
| Thur | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | 31 |
| Fri  | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | -  |
| Sat  | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | -  |

## AUGUST

|      |    |   |    |    |    |
|------|----|---|----|----|----|
| Sun  | 31 | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 |
| Mon  | -  | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 |
| Tues | -  | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 |
| Wed  | -  | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 |
| Thur | -  | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 |
| Fri  | 1  | 8 | 15 | 22 | 29 |
| Sat  | 2  | 9 | 16 | 23 | 30 |

## SEPTEMBER

|      |   |    |    |    |    |   |
|------|---|----|----|----|----|---|
| Sun  | - | 7  | 14 | 21 | 28 | - |
| Mon  | 1 | 8  | 15 | 22 | 29 | - |
| Tues | 2 | 9  | 16 | 23 | 30 | - |
| Wed  | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | -  | - |
| Thur | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | -  | - |
| Fri  | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | -  | - |
| Sat  | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 | -  | - |

## OCTOBER

|      |   |    |    |    |    |
|------|---|----|----|----|----|
| Sun  | - | 5  | 12 | 19 | 26 |
| Mon  | - | 6  | 13 | 20 | 27 |
| Tues | - | 7  | 14 | 21 | 28 |
| Wed  | 1 | 8  | 15 | 22 | 29 |
| Thur | 2 | 9  | 16 | 23 | 30 |
| Fri  | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | 31 |
| Sat  | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | -  |

## NOVEMBER

|      |    |   |    |    |    |
|------|----|---|----|----|----|
| Sun  | 30 | 2 | 9  | 16 | 23 |
| Mon  | -  | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 |
| Tues | -  | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 |
| Wed  | -  | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 |
| Thur | -  | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 |
| Fri  | -  | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 |
| Sat  | 1  | 8 | 15 | 22 | 29 |

## DECEMBER

|      |   |    |    |    |    |   |
|------|---|----|----|----|----|---|
| Sun  | - | 7  | 14 | 21 | 28 | - |
| Mon  | 1 | 8  | 15 | 22 | 29 | - |
| Tues | 2 | 9  | 16 | 23 | 30 | - |
| Wed  | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | 31 | - |
| Thur | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | -  | - |
| Fri  | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | -  | - |
| Sat  | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 | -  | - |

Easter Sunday, April 20.

Whit Sunday, June 8.

## Introduction.

ONCE again events have dislocated the best laid schemes of the makers of year books. At the moment of preparation for press, a General Election was decided upon, and many modifications had to be made in consequence. A volume dealing with the leading features of 1923, which failed to note the result of the appeal to the country in the first week of December, would obviously appear sadly behind the times when read in 1924. The future of the Empire turned largely on the result, which was all the more important because it followed right on the heels of the Imperial and Economic Conferences, and must have a vital effect on the business economy of the British Dominions overseas as of Great Britain itself. Nor can we ignore the possibility of its reactions on the great enterprise which is rapidly assuming shape at Wembley—the British Empire Exhibition that will, in its way, be the Giant Shop Window displaying British produce and British manufactures from every corner of His Majesty's possessions.

What 1924 may bring forth many may suggest, none can know. Hopes have so often been cheated that the optimist, confident that the law of average must prevail, may well be justified in expecting fears to prove equally wide of the mark. At home and abroad the past twelve months have been almost unrelieved in disappointment. At the end of 1922 trade was believed to have taken a definite turn for the better; any movement in that direction was summarily arrested by the decision of the French to occupy the Ruhr. After eleven months, during which chaos and tragedy have darkened counsel, there is a gleam of light in the Ruhr, if not in Germany itself. Whatever compensations France may, a year or two hence, obtain from her adventure, none are looked for by Great Britain. With every country in the world pursuing the only course which it considers will serve its own ends, the chances of recovery for British trade would seem to rest more and more within her own Empire. What tariff barriers against her began, depreciated currencies complete, and the facts given in Sir Philip Lloyd-Greame's article in the Year Book for 1923 have lost none of their significance. That article, widely read and discussed though it has been, should be studied afresh in the light of the deliberations and decisions of the Imperial and Economic Conferences. For the time being the verdict of the country seems a set-back to any large programme for utilising the opportunities provided by the British Dominions: we cannot believe the set-back to be the final considered judgment of the British people, whether they belong to the Unionist, the Liberal or the Labour Party. Coalitions are unpopular, but the patriotism in all parties will, in the end, assert itself and unite for the greater good of the Britannic Commonwealth.

THE EDITORS, B.D.Y.B.

December 10, 1923.

## Events While Printing.

Trade returns for October, with 2 working days more than September, were:—

OCTOBER, 1923, COMPARED WITH SEPTEMBER, 1923.

|                    |             |              |        |
|--------------------|-------------|--------------|--------|
| Imports . . . .    | £99,914,731 | +£16,649,150 | +19.9% |
| Exports . . . .    | 71,322,931  | +7,486,787   | +11.7% |
| Re-exports . . . . | 11,146,961  | +3,036,518   | +37.4% |

TEN MONTHS ENDED OCTOBER, 1923, COMPARED WITH THE SAME PERIOD OF 1922.

|                       |              |              |        |
|-----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------|
| Imports . . . .       | £887,459,651 | +£74,319,644 | + 9.1% |
| Exports . . . .       | 637,445,312  | +42,322,702  | + 7.1% |
| Re-exports . . . .    | 98,004,852   | +11,854,175  | +13.7% |
| Total exports . . . . | 735,450,164  | +54,176,877  | + 7.9% |

The Home Rule (Swaraj) Party has scored many notable successes in the elections to the Indian Legislative Assemblies.

The boilermakers' dispute was terminated by a vote of the men, on November 23rd, after more than seven months, during which 60,000 workers in the shipping industry were affected.

An Irish Free State 5% Loan for £10,000,000, issued at 95, was successfully floated at the end of November.

The special squadron of six warships, which is making a ten months' Empire tour, left Plymouth on November 27th.

Dr. Stresemann's Government was defeated on November 23rd on a motion of confidence, and after a week's crisis, during which several attempts to form a Cabinet failed, Dr. Marx of the Centre Party succeeded in getting together a coalition ministry representing a minority in the Reichstag.

An agreement regarding the working of the Ruhr mines was signed on November 23rd by the German mine owners and the French representatives. On December 10th passive resistance was "officially" at an end and the French will modify their military occupation.

German marks, quoted at 600 milliards to the £1 sterling on October 31st, and 35,000 milliards on November 20th, had improved to 20 milliards on December 3rd.

Details published of French loans to Poland, Roumania and Yugo Slavia in 1923, show that to the first, 400,000,000 francs were advanced, to the second, 100,000,000 francs, and to the third, 300,000,000 francs, all at 5% interest.

The Austrian Budget for 1924 shows an estimated deficit of £2,500,000, a third of that for 1923, giving promise that Austria will not fall far short of her undertaking under the League of Nations Scheme.

The United States Shipping Board declares in favour of preferential tariffs or a subsidy as the only means of ensuring continuance of an American Merchant Marine.

Early in December nine states of Mexico rose under General Sanchez against the Government of President Obregon, apparently with a view to the Presidential Election of 1924.

President Coolidge, in his message to Congress on December 6th, declared finally against America joining the League of Nations—"a foreign agency"—held out hopes that Russia was returning to "the ancient ways of society," refused to entertain any idea of cancelling foreign debts, and urged that America's main problems are domestic, with reduction of taxation and protection of industry as the chief aids to prosperity.

The difficulties of the farmers have been seriously aggravated by foot-and-mouth disease involving losses exceeding £1,000,000.

## The General Election.

THE circumstances in which Mr. Baldwin decided to go to the country are indicated in "Ministers and Parliament."

Immediately after the prorogation, party leaders and candidates threw themselves vigorously into the three weeks' electoral campaign. The atmosphere speedily became charged with all the old time partisanship. Mr. Lloyd George distinguished himself by a return to his earlier manner, and performed a quite remarkable feat in the number of meetings he addressed in all parts of the country. The Unionist, Liberal and Labour policies are best summarised in their respective manifestos.

Mr. Baldwin in his Address said:

The unemployment and under-employment which our working people and our great national industries are now facing for the fourth winter in succession, on a scale unparalleled in our history, have created a problem which calls urgently for a solution. Their indefinite continuance threatens to impair permanently the trained skill and the independent spirit of our workers, to disorganise the whole fabric of industry and credit, and, by eating away the sources of revenue, to undermine the very foundations of our national and municipal life . . . In accordance with the policy affirmed by the Imperial Conference we shall continue to devote every effort, through the League of Nations and by every other practicable means, to the restoration of a true peace in Europe.

The disorganisation and poverty of Europe, accompanied by broken exchanges and by higher tariffs all the world over, have directly and indirectly narrowed the whole field of our foreign trade. In our own home market the bounty given to the importation of foreign goods by depreciated currencies, and by the reduced standard of living in many European countries, has exposed us to a competition which is essentially unfair and is paralysing enterprise and initiative.

What we propose to do for the assistance of employment in industry, if the nation approves, is to impose duties on imported manufactured goods, with the following objects:—

1.—To raise revenue by methods less unfair to our own home production, which at present bears the whole burden of local and national taxation, including the cost of relieving unemployment.

2.—To give special assistance to industries which are suffering under unfair foreign competition.

3.—To utilise these duties in order to negotiate for a reduction of foreign tariffs in those directions which would most benefit our export trade.

4.—To give substantial preference to the Empire on the whole range of our duties with a view to promoting the continued extension of the principle of mutual preference which has already done so much for the expansion of our trade, and the development, in co-operation with the other Governments of the Empire, of the boundless resources of our common heritage.

Such a policy will defend our industries during the present emergency, and will enable us, as more normal conditions return, to work effectively to secure a greater measure of real Free Trade both within the Empire and with foreign countries.

It is not our intention, in any circumstances, to impose any duties on wheat, flour, oats, meat (including bacon and ham), cheese, butter, or eggs.

While assisting the manufacturing industries of the country we propose also to give a direct measure of support to agriculture. We propose to

afford this assistance by a bounty of £1 an acre on all holdings of arable land exceeding one acre. The main object of that bounty is to maintain employment on the land, and so keep up the wages of agricultural labour. In order to make sure of this we shall decline to pay the bounty to any employer who pays less than 30s. a week to an able-bodied labourer.

The exclusion from any import duties of the essential foodstuffs which I have mentioned, as well as of raw materials, undoubtedly imposes certain limitation upon the fullest extension of Imperial preference. But even the preferences agreed to at the recent Economic Conference within our existing fiscal system have been acknowledged as of the greatest value by the Dominion representatives, and our present proposals will offer a much wider field, the value of which will be progressively enhanced by the increasing range and variety of Empire production.

Moreover, in the field of Empire development, as well as in that of home agriculture, we are not confined to the assistance furnished by duties. We have already given an earnest of our desire to promote a better distribution of the population of the Empire through the Empire Settlement Act, and at the Economic Conference we have undertaken to co-operate effectively with the Government of any part of the Empire in schemes of economic development.

These measures constitute a single comprehensive and interdependent policy. Without additional revenue we cannot assist agriculture at home, but the income derived from the tariff will provide for this and leave us with means which can be devoted to cotton-growing and other development in the Empire, and to the reduction of the duties on tea and sugar, which fall so directly upon the working class household.

The position of shipbuilding, one of the hardest hit of all our industries, is peculiar. We propose to give it special assistance by accelerating the programme of light cruiser construction which will, in any case, become necessary in the near future.

The solution of the unemployment problem is the key to every necessary social reform. But I should like to repeat my conviction that we should aim at the reorganisation of our various schemes of insurance against old age, ill health, and unemployment. The encouragement of thrift and independence must be the underlying principle of all our social reforms. The Labour Party's manifesto stated:

The Labour Party challenges the tariff policy and the whole conception of economic relations underlying it. Tariffs are not a remedy for unemployment. Unemployment is a recurrent feature of the existing economic system, common to every industrial country, irrespective of whether it has Protection or Free Trade. The Labour Party alone has a positive remedy for it. We denounce as wholly inadequate and belated the programme of winter work produced by the Government. The Labour programme of national work includes the establishment of a national system of electrical power supply, the development of transport by road, rail, and canal, and the improvement of national resources by land drainage, reclamation, afforestation, town planning, and housing schemes. These not only provide a remedy for the present distress, but are also investments for the future.

Agriculture, as the largest and most essential of the nation's industries, calls for special measures to restore its prosperity and to give the land workers a living wage. The Labour policy is one that will develop agriculture and raise the standard of rural life by establishing machinery for regulating wages with an assured minimum, providing credit and State insurance facilities for farmers and smallholders, promoting and assisting co-operative methods in production and distribution, so as to help to stabilise prices, and make the fullest use of the results of research.

The Labour Party proposes to restore to the people their lost rights in the land, including minerals, and to that end will work for re-equipping the Land Valuation Department, securing to the community the economic rent of land and facilitating the acquisition of land for public use.



Labour's vision of an ordered world embraces the nations now torn with enmity and strife. It stands, therefore, for a policy of international co-operation through a strengthened and enlarged League of Nations; the settlement of disputes by conciliation and judicial arbitration; the immediate calling by the British Government of an International Conference (including Germany on terms of equality) to deal with the revision of the Versailles Treaty, especially reparations and debts; and the resumption of free economic and diplomatic relations with Russia. This will pave the way for disarmament, the only security for the nations.

Labour condemns the failure of the Government to take steps to reduce the dead-weight War Debt. A Labour Chancellor of the Exchequer, in consultation with Treasury experts, would at once work out a scheme to impose a non-recurring, graduated War Debt Redemption Levy on all individual fortunes in excess of £5,000, to be devoted solely to the reduction of the Debt. The saving thus effected, with reduction of expenditure on armaments, other sane economies, and the increased revenue derived from taxation of land values, would make it possible to reduce the burden of Income Tax, abolish not only the food duties, but also the Entertainments Tax and the Corporation Profits Tax, as well as provide money for necessary social services.

The Labour Party is working for the creation of a commonwealth of co-operative service. It believes that so far only a beginning has been made in the scientific organisation of industry. Labour policy is directed to the creation of a humane and civilised society. When Labour rules it will take care that little children shall not needlessly die; it will give to every child equality of opportunity in education; it will make generous provision for the aged people, the widowed mothers, the sick and disabled citizens. It will abolish the slums, promptly build an adequate supply of decent homes and resist decontrol till the shortage is satisfied. It will place the drink traffic under popular control. In accordance with its past actions inside and outside Parliament, the Labour Party will do its utmost to see that the ex-service men and their dependents have fair play. Labour stands for equality between men and women: equal political and legal rights, equal rights and privileges in parenthood, equal pay for equal work.

The united Liberal manifesto said:

The Government, elected 12 months ago, on a programme of five years of tranquillity, has suddenly decided to plunge the country into the turmoil of a General Election, on the allegation—unproved and unprovable—that tariffs are a cure for unemployment. Liberals hold that the economic restoration of Europe is the necessary condition of the revival of our industries and the establishment of peace. They would welcome the re-opening of full relations with Russia. The whole force of the Liberal Party will be thrown into the support of the League of Nations.

But the return to normal economic conditions must take time, and in the interval unemployed men and women cannot be left to await better times with no prospect but unemployment benefit and Poor Law relief. The schemes of the Government are totally inadequate. High prices and scarcity can only lower the standard of living, reduce purchasing power and thereby curtail production. An examination of the figures shows that the suggested tariff cannot possibly assist those trades in which unemployment is most rife. The last thing which taxation on imports can achieve is to provide more work for those engaged in manufacture for export. The Liberal Party is equally convinced that the remedies recommended for unemployment by the Labour Party—Socialism and the Capital Levy—would prove disastrous. What is needed is not the destruction of enterprise, but its encouragement.

The country has made enormous sacrifices to restore the national credit. A bold and courageous use should be made of that credit on enterprises that would permanently improve and develop the home country and the Empire; such as internal transport by road and water, afforestation, the

supply of cheap power secured by the co-ordinated use of our resources of coal and water, reclamation and drainage of land, the development of Imperial resources, especially in our Crown Colonies, railway building in the Dominions and India, the facilitation of oversea settlement under the British flag, cheapening the means of transport in order to develop inter-Imperial trade, and a freer use of the provisions of the Trade Facilities Act. The Liberal Party proposes thoroughly to remodel the Insurance Acts with a view to providing benefits sufficient to allow a reasonable subsistence to a man and his family without aid from Poor Law relief. The Liberal Party will take all possible steps to promote the co-operation of employers and employed. Women electors should be among the first to recognise and resist the protectionist attack on the standard of life of the poorest homes in the country. The thrift disqualification attached to old-age pensions should be immediately removed. The needs of agriculture require special consideration. Import duties on what the farmer buys can only further injure his position. British agriculture requires a free hand, stability of prices, greater capital resources, security of tenure, adequate means for preventing the exaction of unfair and uneconomic rents, and improved transport. Credit facilities for the farmer, and co-operative marketing on a large scale with Government assistance, which has so successfully helped American agriculture over a great crisis, can also be applied in our own country. Opportunity should be given for the cultivator to become the owner of his own land on reasonable terms by a system of land purchase. Small holdings and allotments should be developed and encouraged.

The agricultural labourer is engaged in a skilled industry of cardinal importance to the nation, and ought to be adequately remunerated. The State must recognise that the conditions of his work make it vital to secure that his standard of life should be raised, his housing vastly improved, and the amenities of rural life enlarged. Every opportunity should be given to him and his children to improve their position on the land which he has cultivated for so long.

Unemployment is also caused by over taxation and wasteful administration. There is urgent need and abundant scope for retrenchment in the expenditure of the taxpayers' money in some departments of public service. Liberals will be no parties to the starvation of, or to false economies in, education. Liberal policy centres upon the promotion of all those things which build up the home—housing, temperance, child-welfare, and other social services. The rapid and adequate provision of housing accommodation is an urgent public duty. The excessive consumption of alcoholic drink is one of the main causes of unemployment, disease, and poverty; and the right of the citizens of a locality to decide for themselves the drink facilities in their own area should no longer be withheld. Reforms in local government and rating are long overdue. The overlapping of insurance, Old Age Pensions, and Poor Law relief requires immediate action.

Nominations took place on November 26th. There were 50 unopposed returns—35 Unionists, 11 Liberal, 3 Labour, 1 Independent. Polling resulted, as was freely predicted, in stalemate. The Conservatives at the dissolution had a clear majority over Liberals and Labour of 75; the election left them in a minority of 98. Their net losses were 90; the Liberal net gains were 44; Labour net gains were 46. The position of parties was therefore:

Conservatives, 257; Labour, 195; Liberal, 155;

Independents, 7.

Among the defeated were Sir Montagu Barlow (Minister of Labour), Sir Robert Sanders (Minister of Agriculture), Mr. Winston Churchill, Sir Alfred Mond, Sir Hamar Greenwood, Mr. Arthur Henderson, J. T. W. Newbold (the Communist) and S. Saklatvala (the Parsee). Of thirty-three women candidates, eight were elected.



# The 1923 Conferences.

By J. SAXON MILLS.

THE Imperial Conference, which met on October 1st, 1923, was the tenth in the series of such meetings, the first dating from the Jubilee year of 1887. The parlous condition of British trade, suggested the calling of an Economic Conference to discuss general economic questions and to devise means of developing inter-Imperial trade. The idea was taken up by Mr. Bonar Law, then Prime Minister of Great Britain, who undertook to send out the invitations. Modern invention has not entirely annihilated space, at least for transport, and it was judged inconvenient to call the Dominions Premiers from the uttermost parts of the earth on a separate mission, as they would in any case be here in the autumn of 1923 for the regular Conference. The two events were, therefore, synchronised and the meetings of the two conferences were held concurrently. The personnels of the two were practically identical, except for the experts who attended the Economic meetings.

## THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE.

The following attended the Imperial Conference :

### CANADA.

The Rt. Hon. W. L. Mackenzie King, C.M.G., Prime Minister.

The Hon. Sir Lomer Gouin, K.C.M.G., Minister of Justice and Attorney-General.

The Hon. G. P. Graham, Minister of Railways and Canals.

### COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.

The Rt. Hon. S. M. Bruce, M.C., Prime Minister.

Senator the Hon. R. V. Wilson, Honorary Minister in charge of Departments of Health and Migration.

### NEW ZEALAND.

The Rt. Hon. W. F. Massey, Prime Minister.

### UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

General the Rt. Hon. J. C. Smuts, K.C., C.H., Prime Minister

The Hon. H. Burton, K.C., Minister of Finance.

### IRISH FREE STATE.

Mr. W. T. Cosgrave (President of the Executive Council).

Mr. Desmond Fitzgerald (Minister of External Affairs.)

### NEWFOUNDLAND.

The Hon. W. R. Warren, K.C., Prime Minister.

### INDIA.

Viscount Peel (Secretary for India and head of the Indian Delegation).

Colonel His Highness the Maharajah of Alwar and Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru.

### The Opening.

The first meeting took place on October 1st in the Cabinet Room at 10, Downing Street. Mr. Baldwin (Prime Minister of Great Britain) presided, and all the Dominions were represented except Australia, whose Premier, Mr. Bruce, had not yet reached England. Mr. Baldwin, in his opening speech, drew attention to the striking fact of the presence of a delegate from an autonomous Irish State. On the question of Reparations and the French occupation of the Ruhr, he said:—

We have strained every nerve to preserve the solidarity of the Allies, and especially the Entente with France. We have done this believing that any rupture between us might still further postpone the peace which Europe so sorely needs. I am aware that the patience we have shown in trying to preserve good relations with France has laid us open in many quarters to the charges of indecision and weakness. At this moment it seems that we are entering on a new phase with the collapse of German passive resistance, which appeared to be imminent when I met the French Prime Minister in Paris not many days ago. How the new situation will develop I shall not venture to predict, but one thing was clear to us in Paris, and becomes daily clearer; it is only by the closest co-operation and complete confidence of the the Allies in each other that we can hope for a settlement of Europe's difficulties.

Referring to the Italo-Greek dispute and other questions, the Prime Minister said:—

I consider that the members of the Council deserve the greatest credit for having placed the permanent interests of peace above what might have seemed the immediate interests of the League itself. The League, by its moderation and commonsense, may temporarily have disappointed the expectations of its more ardent and impetuous supporters; but the exhibition of these qualities in very trying circumstances has strengthened its hold upon the confidence of reasoning men in all countries. The repayment of our debt to the U.S.A. is going to call for all our energies, the Premier continued. But we considered that funding the debt was the only possible course consistent with the supreme standard of British credit, and that it was an essential preliminary to the restoration of the normal economic life of the world.

On world trade conditions and Imperial trade, Mr. Baldwin said (in summarised form):—

All countries of the world are burdened by debt, by taxation, by budget difficulties, by exchange fluctuations. The efforts of the Government to cope with this situation have been and will continue to be directed on three main lines. In the first place, relief works of a useful and practical kind, and costing many millions, are set in operation with Treasury assistance through local authorities and otherwise. Secondly, provision on an unprecedented scale is made through the National Unemployment Insurance Scheme for those in the insured trades who are unavoidably unemployed. Thirdly, every practicable step is taken to stimulate and encourage the revival of trade at home with the Dominions, India, and the Colonies, and with foreign countries. One of the most important items on the agenda is this question of inter-Imperial trade. I am confident that we shall be able to devise measures which will be to our mutual advantage by way of redistributing the population, improving transport and means of communication, and generally increasing the facilities for the growth of trade within the Empire. The resources of our Empire are boundless, and the need for rapid development is clamant.

The chief delegates of the Dominions replied in turn. General Smuts' speech was especially interesting. With regard to our home conditions he said:—

As regards the American debt, I have expressed my cordial agreement with what you have done in funding that debt. The British Empire carries out its contracts. At the same time I fear that, unless there is a real recovery of the world, unless you can succeed in re-establishing the trade and commerce of the world, you may find that you have undertaken an intolerable burden for this country. What you have done should, therefore, be followed up with equal decision in a great attempt to restore the trade conditions of Europe. Otherwise you may find that what you have undertaken is perhaps more than this nation can bear. Some people seem to regard their debts very lightly nowadays. I am glad that the British Government has been consistent. At the beginning of the war in 1914 it insisted on the fulfilment of international obligations. It staked the existence of the whole Empire on that. Similarly, after the war you said, We shall honour our bond and pay. That is right and proper as a policy, but at the same time I think it would be almost an intolerable burden to this people unless you can really have peace in the world. Our duty, therefore, not only to the world, but to this people who are going to carry this obligation, is to move heaven and earth in having peace re-established in Europe.

### Colonies and Protectorates.

On October 3rd the Duke of Devonshire, Secretary of State for the Colonies, surveyed the history and conditions of the Colonies and Protectorates during the preceding period of two years. The regions for which he spoke are 2,000,000 square miles in extent, with a population of 50 millions of countless races and creeds.

The Government hoped to see the growth of inter-Imperial trade, and although the financial position of some of the smaller Colonies was a source of continual anxiety, he thought that as a whole the Colonies were "pulling through." Government action would have to be reinforced by private enterprise. He paid a tribute to the work accomplished by Mr. Wood's mission to the West Indies in 1922, and commented upon the schemes for effecting badly-needed improvement in cable communications. He made special reference to the value of the new Imperial Agricultural College to all the tropical dependencies of the Empire. British Guiana was rich in mineral and forest resources, but was badly in need of population. In Africa, both east and west, the British Colonies provide "our greatest opportunity and the widest scope for sustained development." He foreshadowed the building of new railways. As for Kenya, he expressed the hope that now that the political decision had been made, its people "would devote their utmost energy to the development of the great resources of the territory in which they live." Great progress was being made in the education of the native African population, for whom the British people were trustees, and African natives were being employed, not only on mechanical labour, but in clerical work.

Tracing the developments of the last two years in the constitutional history of Rhodesia, which entered on full self-government on October 1st, he paid a tribute to the "great work" of the British South Africa Company.

The progress, both economic and political, of Ceylon, Malaya, Hong-Kong, and Fiji was rapidly reviewed. Turning to the ques-

tion of the mandates in Iraq and in Palestine, the Colonial Secretary dealt with the developments of the last two years, and made special reference to the future of the Mosul villayet, which, he said, on economic and racial grounds, had a strong case for inclusion in the Iraq State. The British Government hope to start friendly negotiations with the Turks at an early date. He hoped that not only would the British Government discharge in full its obligations to Iraq in the maximum period of four years, but that when the termination of the mandatory period was reached, the friendship of the people of Iraq would make them glad to enter into fresh arrangements. In Palestine the British garrison had been reduced, and the British Government was giving "active attention" to the problem of Arab unrest.

### **Foreign Affairs.**

The session of October 5th was devoted to a three-hours survey of foreign affairs by Lord Curzon, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. He gave an account of the events which led to the signing of the Treaty with Turkey on the previous July 24th. He said it was "the best that diplomacy could achieve," though very different from what might have been concluded in 1919. Regarding the European problem, he reiterated the view of His Majesty's Government that final settlement could only be achieved by common action and common consent of the Powers concerned. He referred to the sum of £6,600,000,000 reached by the Reparation Commission as the total amount due from Germany, as "bearing no relation to what Germany could pay" and as a "quite impossible sum." By 1922 Germany had started making application for reduction of the payments due. M. Poincaré, however, declared that if there were to be any moratorium he must have productive pledges—but those demanded were declared to be economically unsound by the majority of a British expert Committee. France's object was to obtain immediate payment of the £1,300,000,000, which she claimed for herself, plus whatever sum might be required to pay off her debts to Great Britain and the United States.

The British Government was of opinion that the Germans continued their obstinate resistance in the Ruhr too long, but believed it to be true that any Government in Berlin which had repudiated it earlier would have been driven from office. Great Britain had tried to "hold the scales between the rival parties." In her opinion the occupation of the Ruhr was not justified by the terms of the Treaty, but the British Government did not express that opinion publicly until the legal issue was raised by M. Poincaré. They had never ceased to press upon Germany the need to pay her just debts, and in a dispatch to the Allies had made certain proposals. They had not been wanting in initiative or barren of suggestion. Their proposals had been unfavourably received by France and Belgium, and our capacity for useful intervention was manifestly exhausted. He emphasised the danger of internal disruption in Germany, and the ultimate

disappearance of the debtor. The next proposals were expected from the French Government, but no settlement could be reached without British co-operation.

This speech was subsequently discussed, and in the end the Conference stated that it regarded any policy which would result in breaking up the unity of the German State as inconsistent with the Treaty obligations entered into both by Germany and the Powers, and as incompatible with the future discharge by Germany of her necessary obligations. The strongest representations were accordingly made to the Allied Governments.

### **The League of Nations.**

At a further meeting Lord Curzon gave an account of the Italo-Greek controversy and the proceedings on that subject in the Conference of Ambassadors, and Lord Robert Cecil discoursed on the League of Nations. His speech dealt generally with the work of the League, laying emphasis on the point that it was not a super-State to give laws to the world. He defined it as an international organization to consider and discuss and agree upon international action and the settlement of international difficulties and disputes. It was a method not of coercive government but of consent. Public opinion, not force, must be its instrument. In the recent dispute between Greece and Italy, he contended that the Council had done exactly what it ought to have done under the Covenant. He did not think that Italy's repudiation of the competence of the League had done the League's authority as much harm as some people believed. Unless they got rid of the idea of force and compulsion there was little hope of a pacified and restored Europe, and he urged that the League must be made more and more the corner-stone of foreign policy.

All the Premiers urged the necessity of strengthening the hands of the League.

General Smuts spoke strongly in support of the League, the ideal of which seemed to be the only hope of the world. If in practice the League had not realised the great anticipations of those who originated it, it was because of its youth and inexperience and of the difficulties of the times through which we are passing—times when it was almost impossible to keep any good cause afloat. In the interest which it was arousing, the League was adding a new bond of cohesion of the Empire.

Professor MacNeill, who was attending the Conference for the first time as a representative of the Irish Free State, thought there would be no difficulty in following a common course if their foreign policy was always in harmony with the principles underlying the League of Nations.

### **Defence.**

On October 15th the problems of Imperial Defence were discussed with reference to a statement on the subject made by Lord Salisbury, Chairman of the National and Imperial Defence Committee. The Conference ultimately adopted a series of resolutions.



While affirming "that it is necessary to provide for the adequate defence of the territories and trade of the several countries comprising the British Empire," the Conference admitted that the nature and extent of Dominion effort is a matter for each Government to decide. It suggested a number of guiding principles, including the primary responsibility of each portion of the Empire for its own local defence, the need for maintenance of naval strength within the limits of the Washington Treaty, the adequate provision of naval bases and of safeguarding maritime routes, and the desirability of uniformity in the training and equipment of the Air Forces throughout the Empire. Special reference was made to the deep interest of Australia, New Zealand, and India in the provision of a naval base at Singapore "to provide for the security of the territories and trade of the Empire in Eastern waters." Another clause recognised "the necessity for the maintenance by Great Britain of a Home Defence Air Force of sufficient strength to give adequate protection against air attack by the strongest air force within striking distance of her shores." The Conference expressed the hope that no opportunity will be lost to promote the object of further limitation of armaments.

### **An Empire Cruise.**

Mr. Amery, First Lord of the Admiralty, made a statement on naval affairs and announced the itinerary for a proposed Empire cruise by warships, which was heartily approved by the Conference.

It was understood that the object of the suggested cruise was twofold—first, to show the British flag throughout the British Empire; and second, to give certain vessels an opportunity for long-distance cruising, which they have not had for some years. The vessels selected for the cruise were the Hood and the Repulse and a light cruiser squadron. They first visit the West Coast of Africa, and after cruising along the East Coast they cross to Singapore, and from thence to Australia. They afterwards proceed by way of New Zealand, Fiji, Canada and the United States, and then home. The heavy ships go through the Panama Canal and the lighter vessels round Cape Horn. The cruise is to occupy ten months.

### **Oversea Status of Indians.**

The question of the position of Indians in other parts of the Empire came up for consideration on October 24th, the subject being introduced by Lord Peel, Secretary of State for India, head of the Indian delegation. The Indian case was presented by Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru and the Maharajah of Alwar. [Sir Tej Sapru's speech is given almost verbatim in this issue. Ed.] Lord Peel said that if the unity and the strength of the Empire were to be maintained it was essential to find a solution for the problem of Indians in the Dominions overseas. He emphasised the entire unity of feeling upon the subject among all shades of political opinion in India. He outlined the services rendered by India during the war, described the concessions granted to Indians in their political life, and contrasted them with their treatment in the Dominions. It was the duty of the Indian Government to safeguard the treatment of Indian nationals overseas.



Statements were made at subsequent meetings by the Duke of Devonshire, and speeches on the subject by the Dominions Premiers.

The Prime Minister of South Africa explained the peculiar difficulties faced by his Government, and set out in detail why Indians cannot be admitted to the political franchise. In the Union there was an Indian population of something like 160,000. He deplored the action of the 1921 Conference in passing a resolution by a majority only. "It has never been done before," he said, "and I do hope it will never occur again. Our procedure in this Conference has been by way of unanimity. If we cannot convince each other, we agree to differ and to let the matter stand over." He drew a distinction between the right to British citizenship throughout the Empire and the right to franchise in any one of the Dominions.

Mr. Baldwin, at the final meeting on the subject, said that as a result of informal discussions a statement had been prepared for the purposes of record. The British Government "cordially accepted the proposal of Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru that there should be full consultation and discussion between the Secretary of State for the Colonies and a committee appointed by the Government of India upon all questions affecting British Indians domiciled in British Colonies, Protectorates, and Mandated Territories." Although the Colonial Secretary saw no prospect of modifying the decision on the Kenya settlement, he would give careful attention to such representations as the Committee appointed by the Government of India might desire to make to him.

### **Treaty-Making.**

On this subject a resolution was passed containing the following clause:—"Bilateral treaties imposing obligations on one part of the Empire only should be signed by a representative of the Government of that part. The full power issued to such representative should indicate the part of the Empire in respect of which the obligations are to be undertaken, and the preamble and text of the treaty should be so worded as to make its scope clear." But it was urged that no treaty should be negotiated by any of the Governments of the Empire "without due consideration of its possible effect on other parts of the Empire, or, if circumstances so demand, on the Empire as a whole." Any Government of the Empire which contemplates the negotiation of a treaty should afford the other Governments of the Empire an opportunity of expressing their views.

### **The Twelve Mile Limit.**

On this subject the Conference, while affirming and safeguarding the doctrine of the three-mile limit "as a cardinal feature of British policy," arrived at the conclusion that it was both desirable and practicable to meet the request of the United States Government for an extension of the right of search in cases of

suspected liquor smuggling. Negotiations have been opened for the conclusion of an experimental agreement.

The Imperial Conference completed its work on November 8th. The following address was presented to the King:—

To His Majesty The King, Emperor of India.

We, the Prime Ministers and representatives of the British Empire, who have been assembled to take counsel together during the past six weeks, desire, before our meetings come to an end, to give expression once again to our affection and respect for Your Majesty and Her Majesty the Queen, and to reaffirm our fidelity to the Crown.

We have had to face, in the course of the deliberations at both our Conferences, many and serious problems which confront the sister nations and the peoples of the British Commonwealth. We shall count ourselves fortunate if we have been able to contribute towards the solution of these problems, even to a small degree.

Yet, as we look back on the years which have passed since the Great War, we are proud to feel that, amid the economic and political convulsions which have shaken the world, the British Empire stands firm and that its widely scattered peoples remain one in their belief in its ideals and their faith in its destiny.

To the task of promoting that unity, of which the Crown is the emblem, Your Majesties have long devoted your strength and labours. We pray that the consciousness of the devotion of the peoples and the members of your Empire may encourage and uphold you in that task for many years to come.

### THE ECONOMIC CONFERENCE.

The first meeting was held on October 2nd at the Cabinet Offices, 2, Whitehall Gardens. The chair was occupied by Sir Philip Lloyd-Greame, President of the Board of Trade. Premiers and experts from the Dominions were present, the Colonies and Protectorates being represented by Mr. W. Ormsby-Gore, Parliamentary Under-Secretary for the Colonies.

The Chairman dealt with the general trade position, and foreshadowed the work before the Conference. He said:—

To-day our export trade is still far below its pre-war volume. This deficiency, fluctuating somewhat in extent, has persisted for many months, and has been and is to-day reflected in unemployment of a duration and on a scale without precedent. It would be difficult to exaggerate the gravity or the urgency of such a situation. But one fact is plain. We can only restore and maintain steady employment in this country if we can wipe out the deficit in our export trade and, indeed, do something more. It will not be enough to get back to our pre-war volume of trade. Our population has increased, and at the same time the efficiency of methods of production has improved. Consequently, a larger volume of trade is necessary than before the war to maintain employment. For us, therefore, the vital problem is the problem of markets, the restoration of old markets, but, still more, the development of new markets. While the interdependence of world trade makes the restoration of stable and productive conditions in Europe of great importance, we should realise two facts in this connection. First, even if we assume the most favourable conditions that are practically possible to-day, the complete recovery of the producing and purchasing power of parts of Europe must be, at best, a slow process. Secondly, the industrial capacity of Europe was largely increased during and immediately after the war, and, consequently, we shall have to face increasing competition in industrial output. These facts emphasise the enormous importance to us of the progressive development of new markets. And is it not true that

for the Dominions and for the Colonies the need of constant and steady markets is hardly less important?

After a reference to Empire Settlement, the Chairman turned to the question of Preference:—

We in this country are fully alive to, and keenly appreciative of, the value of the preferences which we have received under your tariffs. And, on our part, we have definitely established the principle of Imperial Preference in our own more limited fiscal system. We wish to apply that principle, within the scope which is practicable for us, so as to stimulate still further the development of Imperial products and Imperial resources. Any increase which it is possible for you to make in the rate of preference will be of real value to us, and will the more enable us to buy from you. . . . In this matter, again, we shall speak together frankly. We can expose to each other fully and frankly our desires and our difficulties. Indeed, any other form of discussion would be useless. On our part, we shall certainly approach the question of Preference with a strong desire to increase our mutual trade, ready and willing to take what action is possible for us and of value to other parts of the Empire to secure that end.

The Delegates replied in turn, General Smuts remarking on the subject of Preference:—

You cannot fairly claim that the Dominions should in very large numbers take immigrants from these islands and at the same time refuse to help the Dominions in taking the produce of the work of their hands. The two policies go hand in hand, and I am sure that, without any inroad on your existing fiscal policy, you can so shape your course and give such preferences in future as will very much facilitate this work of migration and of Empire development.

Mr. C. A. Innes, a member of the Governor-General of India's Council, made an important speech on behalf of India. Indian exports to the United Kingdom, he said, were only 20 per cent. of her entire exports, and imports from the United Kingdom as much as those of Canada, Australia and South Africa combined. India pursued a policy of "discriminating protection," that is, she would protect her industries wherever they required it.

### Migration.

The session of October 5th was devoted to a speech by Lieut.-Col. Buckley, Chairman of the Overseas Settlement Committee, who dealt with the subject of migration and the difficulties that had beset the operation of the Empire Settlement Act.

No time had been lost, Colonel Buckley said, in framing agreements under the Act. Passage agreements had been concluded with Australia, New Zealand, and the Government of Ontario, and, as regards certain classes of migrants, with the Canadian Government. Important agreements for land settlement had also been arranged with Western Australia, Victoria, and New South Wales. The British Government had sanctioned financial assistance up to a limit of £1,500,000 for the first year and £3,000,000 for each of the next fourteen years.

What has now to be faced is that no eagerness has been shown to take advantage of the facilities for settlement which have been created. Taking the figures up to the end of September, Lieutenant-Colonel Buckley said that the number of persons who had proceeded abroad with assistance was only 31,832, of whom 23,479 had gone to Australia, 4,502 to New Zealand, and 3,851 to Canada. In addition, some further seven thousand persons have been approved but have not yet sailed. Our cash commitments under the Act in the same period amounted to £382,000, as against authorisations

of £1,500,000 up to March 31st, and £3,000,000 for the current financial year.

These results, he admitted, were disappointing. The numbers who have gone overseas are infinitesimal in comparison with the needs of the movement, and they fall far short of the numbers contemplated for absorption. There is no great confidence that the position will be much better in 1924.

Discussion followed, in which Mr. Graham, Minister of Railways and Canals in Canada, remarked that Canada would endeavour to obtain every British immigrant she could absorb with advantage to the migrant, the Empire and herself.

On October 9th Mr. Amery, First Lord of the Admiralty, spoke on Empire Settlement. He expressed the hope that in considering settlement and other schemes the Dominions would not pursue a hand-to-mouth policy. He pointed out that there were some seven million miles of Empire territory suitable for white settlement, but three-fourths of the population was huddled together on less than one-fiftieth of that area. The result was not one that made for efficiency in development, for whereas in this country the congestion was actually a clog on the efficiency of industrial production, the inadequacy of population in the Dominions, on the other hand, added to the cost of production. They wanted to get away from the view that migration was simply a sort of safety-valve to unemployment. It was a policy of trade and Empire building—town planning on a large scale. A more even distribution of the population of the Empire would mean a far more rapid and healthy growth in each part and a facilitation of the problems of defence.

### Mr. Bruce's Speech.

On October 9th Mr. Bruce, Prime Minister of Australia, made a long speech, which created great interest and comment inside and outside the Conference. In brief summary his suggestions were these:—

In examining any proposals put forward these three points must guide them: to assist the British farmer, to encourage the Dominion producer, and to safeguard the British consumer.

With regard to the first, as representing Australia, he gave as his first choice a tariff on the foodstuffs and raw materials and a preference to the Dominions. Australia would welcome such a solution. Unless Empire agriculture could be encouraged, Britain must expect to see the control of its food supplies pass more and more into foreign hands. In view of the high prices which the British consumer had to pay for produce there was no real reason why a system of protection and preference based on a tariff should necessarily increase the cost of living.

His second suggestion was a sliding scale for protection and preference, so as to give some measure of stability to the market by bringing the tariff into operation only when the prices of commodities were so low as to be unremunerative to the agricultural producer.

His third suggestion was a system of subsidies to British agriculture and to the Dominions' producer. He presumed that under any such system the subsidies to the British farmer would only be available when the market price had sunk below the reasonable cost of production.

He also put forward two other methods, which, based on the idea of controlling the volume of foreign imports, were worthy of consideration.



The first was an import licence system to discriminate against foreign countries. An analogous system to this was, he believed, now being carried out by the Hop Control.

By such a system British agriculture would be left entirely uncontrolled, and the Dominions would be allowed to import their produce practically without restriction, but foreign imports would only be allowed under licence. The second method was a "stabilisation policy"—to stabilise the prices of such essential commodities as meat and wheat.

### Preference.

On the same day, Sir Philip Lloyd-Greame set forth the proposals the Government had to make with regard to fiscal preference for Empire products. Preference bulked very largely in the proceedings of this as of most other Conferences in the past. The following comprise the Government's extensions of the preference policy as announced to the Conference:—

**DRIED FRUIT.**—At present dried figs, raisins, and plums (including apricots) are dutiable at the rate of 10s. 6d. per cwt. if from foreign countries, and enjoy, if of Empire origin, a preference of one-sixth, *i.e.*, of 1s. 9d. per cwt.

It is proposed to admit these goods free of duty from the Empire, so that Empire raisins, figs, and plums will enjoy a preference of 10s. 6d. per cwt.

**CURRANTS.**—At present dried currants are dutiable at the rate of 2s. per cwt., and enjoy a preference of one-sixth which, on the existing duty, only amounts to 4d.

His Majesty's Government are prepared to offer free admission to Empire currants and to consider what increase in the duty on foreign currants may be necessary to make the preference effective; such increase to come into force at a future date to be agreed upon.

**OTHER DRIED FRUIT.**—At present there is no duty on any other dried fruit, but whilst continuing to admit such Empire dried fruit free, His Majesty's Government would propose to impose a duty of 10s. 6d. per cwt. on such foreign dried fruit (*e.g.*, apples, pears, and peaches) as the Dominion representatives may consider of interest to their trade.

**OTHER PRESERVED FRUITS.**—Except for the fruits above named, which are dutiable as such when dried or preserved without sugar, fruits otherwise preserved are not dutiable save in respect of sugar contents, if any. It is proposed, in addition to any such duty on the sugar contents, to impose an all-round duty of 5s. per cwt. on the principal forms of preserved fruit not at present dutiable, except fruit pulp for jam manufacture, which will remain free of duty. All such fruit will be admitted free from the Empire.

**SUGAR.**—At present sugar is dutiable according to a scale dependent on the polarisation of the sugar, with a basis rate of 25s. 8d. per cwt. on fully refined sugar.

Empire sugar enjoys a preference of one-sixth, or 4s. 3½d. per cwt., being nearly a halfpenny a pound on refined sugar.

It is not possible at present to offer an increase in this preference, but His Majesty's Government are ready to guarantee that, if the duty is reduced, the preference shall, for a period of ten years, not fall with it, but be maintained at its present rate of nearly a halfpenny per pound, so long, at least, as the duty on foreign sugar does not fall below that level.

**TOBACCO.**—At present the duty on tobacco varies according to type, being, of course, higher on cigars than on unmanufactured tobaccos. On the latter it is about 8s. 2d. per pound, on which the Empire enjoys a preference of one-sixth, or, say, on raw tobacco, of 1s. 4d.

His Majesty's Government would be prepared to adopt the course proposed in regard to sugar—*i.e.*, to stabilise the existing preference for a term of years—or, alternatively, they are prepared to increase the preference to one-quarter—*i.e.*, to about 2s.—on unmanufactured tobacco at present rates, the amount of the preference, of course, varying as the basis varies.



Subsequently the following recommendations were added:—

**TOBACCO.**—The Dominion representatives having decided that they prefer the increase of the preference from 1-6th to 1-4th rather than the stabilisation of the existing preference, that the preference be so increased.

**APPLES.**—That an import duty of 5s. per cwt. be imposed on raw apples from foreign sources, and that Empire supplies be allowed to come in free.

**CANNED SALMON.**—That an import duty of 10s. per cwt. be imposed on foreign canned salmon and that Empire products be allowed to enter free.

**FRUIT JUICES.**—That a duty of 6d. per gallon be imposed on foreign fruit juices and that supplies from the Dominions shall be admitted free.

**HONEY.**—That a duty of 10s. per cwt. be imposed on foreign honey, but that Empire honey shall come in free.

**WINES.**—The existing preference of 2s. per gallon on the duty of 6s. per gallon on wines and spirits exceeding 30 degrees is to be doubled. That is to say, Empire produced wines will pay 2s. a gallon duty instead of 4s. as before.

**SPARKLING WINES.**—The existing preference on the surtax of 12s. 6d. a gallon on sparkling wines is to be increased from 30 per cent. to 50 per cent.

**HOPS AND BARLEY.**—Sir P. Lloyd-Greame promised that in the event of a duty being put on hops or malting barley a preference of one-third should be given to the Empire.

The Government's preferential announcements were cordially received by the delegates. But Mr. C. A. Innes, on behalf of India, pointed out that preference had never been accepted by India, because she stood to gain very little and to lose a great deal. Her exports went largely to foreign countries and practically the whole of her imports were British. He, therefore, could not commit the Government of India to a policy of preference.

On this subject the Conference passed the following resolution :

The time has arrived when all possible encouragement should be given to the development of Imperial resources, and especially to making the Empire independent of other countries in respect of food supplies, raw material, and essential industries. This Conference expresses itself in favour of (1) the principle that each part of the Empire, having due regard to the interests of our Allies, shall give specially favourable treatment and facilities to the produce and manufactures of other parts of the Empire ; and (2) arrangements by which intending emigrants from the United Kingdom may be induced to settle in countries under the British Flag.

### Communications.

Next to preference, in importance came the subject of transport and communications, of mail, cable, and wireless services.

Sir L. Worthington-Evans, reviewed the developments, actual or contemplated, in all these services, and claimed that, in regard to the mails and cables, they had been restored almost, if not quite, to pre-war regularity and efficiency. Whilst admitting that the West Indian cable communications were not altogether satisfactory, he mentioned that a comprehensive scheme had been prepared and agreed to in principle by the Canadian Government and the Colonies concerned for a new cable from Turk's Island to Barbados, whence it would bifurcate to Trinidad on the one hand and British Guiana on the other. The smaller islands would be served by wireless stations subsidiary to the cable.

Three resolutions were adopted. The first urged that representatives of the Dominions and India should be associated with the work of the Imperial Communications Committee when questions of interest to them are under consideration ; the second that all possible support be given to the State-owned Atlantic cable route, and the third that in any concessions in the British Empire to private cable or wireless enterprise, including broadcasting stations, preference should be given to companies within the Empire.

### Shipping.

The report of the Imperial Shipping Committee was also considered, and the following resolution was passed :—

In view of the vital importance to the British Empire of safeguarding its overseas carrying trade against all forms of discrimination by foreign countries, whether open or disguised, the representatives of the Governments of the Empire declare :—

- (1) That it is their established practice to make no discrimination between the flags of shipping using their ports, and that they have no intention of departing from this practice as regards countries which treat ocean-going shipping under the British flag on a footing of equality with their own national shipping.
- (2) That in the event of danger arising in future to the overseas shipping of the Empire through an attempt by a foreign country to discriminate against the British flag, the Governments of the Empire will consult together as to the best means of meeting the situation.

### Aviation.

Sir Samuel Hoare, the Air Minister, made an important statement on this subject. He expressed the view that aeroplane services were gradually being put on a more economic basis. In the past thirty-two months, the British cross-Channel service had met with no serious accident, 2,000,000 miles had been flown, and the number of passengers was increasing steadily. With regard to the Burney scheme for an airship route to India, he explained that the project was one of three stages. The first would be the construction of an airship which would satisfy necessary requirements and be able to reach India in 100 flying hours; the second stage would be the inauguration of a weekly service to India; and the third would be a bi-weekly service to India which would necessitate six airships of 5,000,000 cubic feet capacity to eight days at present, and to India in roughly five days, as being in commission. If the scheme is successful, it will be possible to get from London to Cairo in two days, as against five and a half against fourteen and a half. It was agreed to set up a Committee to go into the whole question of the Burney scheme with the Air Minister and his experts.

### Various Decisions.

It is impossible here to enumerate all the subjects which the Economic Conference discussed. But several of the more important decisions must be recorded.

It was decided, though Canada dissented, to establish an Imperial Economic Committee of persons representing all the Governments represented at the Imperial Conference, and responsible to those Governments, to advise upon matters of an economic or commercial character that may be referred to it.

To promote financial co-operation in Imperial development, the Home Government promised to introduce legislation to provide that a grant up to three-quarters of the interest charges for a period of five years be made towards schemes of public utility

in the Dominions. Payment would be made to the Dominion or Central Government, which would be responsible to the ultimate recipient.

After discussion as to the work done by and the future of the Imperial Institute, it was agreed to advise the Legislatures of the Dominions and of India that they should contribute a sum of £8,000 a year, made up as follows:—Canada and Australia, £2,000 each; New Zealand, South Africa, and India, £1,200 each; and the Irish Free State and Newfoundland, £200 each.

On the vexed question of "wireless" development, the following resolution was passed:—

That this Imperial Economic Conference affirms the importance of establishing as quickly as possible an efficient Imperial service of wireless communication, and is of opinion that the several Governments of the Empire should take immediate action to remove any difficulties which are now delaying the accomplishment of this, while providing adequate safeguards against the subordination of public to private interests.

The Conference also passed formal resolutions on the question of the immunity of State enterprises from taxation, on the subjects of commercial facilities, forestry, bills of lading, workmen's compensation, patents, the enforcement of judgments. On this last subject the following resolution was passed:—

While it is recognised that in certain Dominions these matters come within the scope of Provincial or State Governments, whose freedom of action could not be bound by any decision of the Dominion or Central Government, the general view of the Imperial Economic Conference is that a universal arrangement throughout the Empire for the reciprocal enforcement of judgments, including arbitration awards, could not fail to be valuable and advantageous to trade and commerce, and is accordingly an object at which the different parts of the Empire should aim.

In view of existing world conditions, special interest attaches to the resolution on inter-Imperial exchanges which ran thus:—

(1) That, arising as they do from the suspension of an effective gold standard, the difficulties of inter-Imperial exchange will disappear when the currencies of Great Britain and the Dominions affected are again made convertible into gold.

(2) That it is neither necessary nor desirable to adopt complicated plans for a new instrument of credit, such as Empire Currency Bills, which involve difficult and disputable constitutional and financial questions.

(3) That where difficulties have arisen in regard to exchange between certain parts of the Empire and between such parts and the United Kingdom

(A) the position could be ameliorated if the note-issuing authorities were to accumulate sterling assets and to undertake to exchange their local currencies for sterling and vice versa;

(B) this measure might be further developed and assisted by the creation of central banks and by mutual co-operation as recommended by the Genoa Conference;

(c) in some cases the bank charges for buying and selling sterling appear to be unduly high and should be capable of reduction.

At the closing sitting on November 9th, it was generally agreed that a great deal of very good work had been done. The calling of the Conference had been fully justified by the result.

# India :

## I. The Position in 1923.

By SIR MICHAEL O'DWYER, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.

### I.—General Situation.

SINCE the Reforms Scheme of 1919, British India has emerged from the sheltered atmosphere of "placid pathetic contentment," which it was the admitted object of the authors of that scheme to disturb. She has now, for better or for worse, entered into the arena of democratic institutions and world politics. The pouring of the new strong wine of self-determination into the ancient wine skins of the East has given rise to ferments and explosions, and those who indulged too freely in the crude vintage have in many cases paid the penalty by losing their heads and their balance. Already there are signs of the "morning after" feeling that follows excess.

The most noticeable feature in India to-day is the growing disillusionment among those who themselves thought and endeavoured to persuade others that sweeping constitutional changes afforded an easy short cut to the political and social progress which wiser people know can only be attained by the slow and patient processes of evolution. The promises of a new heaven and a new earth which were so confidently held out in recent years by Gandhi and his fanatical or self-seeking followers to the ignorant and the credulous, if only the foreign monster were thrust out, have not materialised; the speedy collapse of the false prophets one after another, directly a timid and slow-moving Government decided to assert its legitimate authority, has helped to arouse both the Governors and the governed to a sense of realities. The former, perhaps, now realise that the bogeys of which they had stood in dread for years were vain fantasies of their own creation; the latter have seen that their whilom idols have feet of clay.

The return to political sanity among the less than one per cent. of the population that can be called "politically minded"—for only 2 per cent. have votes and only one fourth of those cast their votes at the last elections—has been hastened by the violent disagreements among their leaders.

The main line of cleavage is between so-called "Moderates," who profess to co-operate with the Government in working the reforms, and the Non-Co-operators. Gandhi and his successors, who refuse to have any dealings with a "satanic" foreign Government, and make no secret of their desire to paralyse the administration. Their methods range from the boycott of Government institutions, such as the schools, colleges and law courts, and an

embargo on British goods to attempts to seduce the Indian police and army from their allegiance. But the disappearance from the scene of Gandhi has led to a violent breach among his followers. One section, which has its chief strength in Bengal, perhaps feeling uneasy at seeing the "Moderates" monopolising place and power as a result of their co-operation, now desires to stand for election and fight its way into the Councils, ostensibly with the object of wrecking them, if their demands for immediate full self-government are not conceded. Another section, in which the stalwarts of the Punjab and the Deccan are prominent, will have no truck with these weak counsels.

In open or tacit alliance with such revolutionary elements as the Akali Sikhs in the Punjab, the Hindu standard-bearers of the revolutionary flag in the Central Provinces, and what fragments are left of the discredited Mohammedan Khilafat faction, these "Die Hards" have nailed their colours to the mast, and refuse even to parley with the "oppressor."

The present situation has many analogies with Southern Ireland. But there is this immense difference. Whatever view we may take of Irish politics and parties, we must not forget that they are based on the votes of one million out of the three million inhabitants, that is one in three, as at the last election in Great Britain. But those who profess to speak in the name of India's 250 millions derive their mandate from a total of only 180,000 votes, or one in 1,400 of the population! Irish parties and politicians have, therefore, as in Great Britain, something solid behind them; Indian "soi-disant" representatives stand only for a microscopic "intelligentsia"

## **II.—Anti-British Feeling and Sectarian Feuds.**

The development of parties in India, based on well defined secular political issues, appealing to large masses of the population, would be a welcome indication of constitutional progress. But of this there are few signs. The bond that for four years united Hindu and Mohammedan extremists under the leadership of Gandhi and the Ali brothers was hatred of British rule. The tie that has hitherto held together the Indian advanced politicians in the Councils was the common desire to curtail the power of the executive, and to reduce wholesale, if not wholly to exclude, the British element in the administration. These spells have wrought much mischief in recent years, but are losing their potency.

The settlement of the Turkish question by the Treaty of Lausanne has taken the wind out of the sails of the Mohammedan extremists, who can no longer excite the fanaticism of their co-religionists in support of the temporal power of a Turkish Khilafat, which the Angora Turks have so summarily suppressed. The disillusionment has been completed by the well-grounded suspicion that the Indian Khilafat leaders have been exploiting their credulous



followers for their own personal ends. The Vice-President of the Oudh Khilafat Committee, in a recent article in the "Aligarh Gazette," has shown that only twenty per cent of the funds subscribed on behalf of Angora has been applied to its correct use, and one of the leaders of the movement has had to admit a deficiency of £130,000 in his remittances.

The Hindu extremists under Gandhi's direction had supported the Khilafat movement, the *quid pro quo* being that the Mohammedans should support the demand for Swaraj, which the Hindu revolutionary leaders are wise enough not to define, leaving each body of malcontents, Hindu, Sikh and Mohammedan, to interpret it according to their own wishes. But the disappearance of the Khilafat question has removed this bond of union, in the permanence of which no one with any knowledge of Indian conditions ever believed.

The Mohammedans who take an interest in politics are now seeing that Swaraj would in practise mean the rule of the Hindu majority over their former masters. Their enthusiasm for the Hindu Mohammedan *entente* has cooled, and the leaders are now being openly accused by their Hindu allies of having deserted them after having used them in the Khilafat quarrel, while many of their own co-religionists regard them with growing suspicion.

The ever-latent hostility between the two great creeds has now revived in an acute form, and is stimulated by the clash of communal interests in the Councils, the administration generally, and in almost every representative body. Sectarian animosities are now raging throughout the length and breadth of India. In the northern provinces fierce collisions between Hindus and Mohammedans have within the last few months caused bloodshed and serious loss of life in many of the chief towns from Peshawar to Calcutta; mosques are desecrated, temples burned by fanatical mobs.

**"Fighting like devils for conciliation,**

And hating one another for the love of God."

It is a sorry spectacle, and only the influence and vigilance of the small but rapidly dwindling body of British officials, the "steel framework" without which, in Mr. Lloyd George's words, the whole fabric would collapse, and the prompt appearance of British troops, have prevented great cities such as Mooltan, Amritsar, Meerut and Agra from becoming shambles.

The saddest feature of this relapse into barbarism is the impotence or aloofness of those Indian "leaders" who are so loud in their pretensions to represent the masses and so insistent in their demands in the Councils and outside it for the recognition of Indian National unity. The Congress leaders for their own objects, viz., to preserve a united front against the Government, made strenuous attempts to compose the warring elements in the Punjab, but their exhortations fell on deaf ears. They may have

been potent enough in the past to stir up the ignorant and credulous, but they are powerless to allay passions once aroused.

Indeed, in some cases the Hindu leaders of the Arya Jamáf type aroused the storm by their aggressive activities in the "Shuddhi" movement—a movement for the reconversion to Hinduism of the Malkana Rajputs, who within the last few centuries of Moghul rule had embraced Islam.

This ill-timed action has stirred Mohammedan feeling to its depths, and led to retaliatory measures in the form of Islamic propaganda among the 50 millions of the depressed classes. Orthodox Hindus have hitherto treated these classes as "outcasts" and "untouchables," and only the much-maligned British official and the Christian missions have shewn any real interest in their welfare and uplift. With such a wide field for religious and social reform available, it seems a pity that the Hindu reformers should have preferred to challenge Islam on its own ground. But so it is. While the present sectarian strife continues, there can be no security without a strong British element in the administration and an adequate force of British troops, for whenever trouble arises it is to one or other, or both, of these that all parties invariably appeal. And yet this is the time when the Indian politicians who are supposed to voice the needs and the wishes of the people are clamouring, and not without success, for the wholesale reduction of the only two forces that stand between 320 millions of people and anarchy.

### III.—Recovering Confidence in British Administration.

But as Lincoln once remarked in a memorable passage "you cannot deceive all the people all the time." There are growing indications that even the non-political masses, the 98 per cent. who have no vote, and in the words of the Montagu-Chelmsford report "are poorly equipped for politics and do not at present wish to take part in them," are realising that their interests are safer in the hands of the impartial and honest British official than in those of Indian politicians who are sometimes self-seeking and not always honest. The frenzy of anti-British feeling, which had been worked up so successfully by the preaching of Gandhi and his followers, that alien domination was the root cause of all India's ills, is rapidly disappearing. The British official is again welcomed on his tours, and the people hasten to him as of yore to redress their troubles and remedy their grievances. This is all to the good. But, unfortunately, religious strife between Hindus and Mohammedans is taking the place of race hatred against the British, and one of the tests of the Reforms Scheme will be the capacity which Indian ministers, Indian councillors, and Indian representatives display in assisting the administrators to cope with sectarian animosities which are now a menace to constitutional and social progress.

#### IV.—Revolutionary Movements.

In the middle of 1921, when the Khilafat agitation was at its height, and Gandhi's Swaraj movement most threatening, a committee of the Legislative Assembly, which included the Home and Law members of the Government of India, reported that nearly all the special security legislation including the Rowlatt Act of 1919 could safely be repealed, because "the revolutionary movement was quiescent and the organisations that supported it had ceased to exist." That was at the time a grossly inaccurate diagnosis of the situation, and the almost immediate outbreak of the Moplah rebellion as a consequence of the Khilafat agitation was a dramatic exposure of its ineptitude. That wrong diagnosis may have been a sop to the advanced politicians, but to the unfortunate people of Malabar it meant the loss of ten thousand lives, widespread rapine, outrage and forcible conversion to Islam of thousands of Hindus. Those unfortunate victims are still vainly seeking re-admission to the Hindu fold, while the Hindu reformers, ignoring them, are seeking to get their own back by the re-conversion of classes in Northern India who have been Mohammedan for centuries! It is to be hoped that after this sharp lesson the Government of India will extend its gaze beyond the council chambers of Simla and Delhi which have so often barred their vision to the real India outside.

But to-day Gandhi is locked up for six years, and the All-India Assembly, by rejecting a resolution for his release, have shown that they consider that is the proper place for him. The Khilafat is, as above explained, no longer a name to conjure with; and the cleavages between the Hindu and Mohammedan extremist factions have, for the time at least, taken away their power to instil their poisonous doctrines into the masses. But the need for vigilance remains. The Ali brothers, who in the past were so successful in kindling the flame of Mohammedan fanaticism and anti-British feeling, have recently been released, and Mohamed Ali boasts that he is unrepentant and eager to resume his anti-British campaign. Since his release he has identified himself with the extreme congress party, which, in its recent meeting at Delhi passed a resolution for organising an effective scheme of civil disobedience, and further declared that India could no longer honourably remain a member of the British Empire.

In Bengal, too, we have it on official authority that the recent revolutionary movement which captured so many thousands of the *litterati* of young Bengal between 1907 and 1918, and after leading to scores of murders and robberies and the ruin of thousands of young lives was suppressed by Lord Ronaldshay's firm administration, is again becoming active. Stern executive measures have already been taken to deal with it, in spite of the usual protests of the Legislative Council which invariably opposes preventive or punitive measures. Unfortunately by repealing the emergency

laws in deference to political claimants, the Government has to fight with one hand tied behind its back.

In the Central Provinces the display of the hostile revolutionary flag, encouraged by the incredible vacillation of the local government, has brought together mobs described by the official representatives in the Council as carrying hatred of the British in their hearts and defiance on their lips. To conciliate them the Governor has agreed to the seditious bands parading their emblem of defiance through the official quarter, and has followed this up by the wholesale release, in deference to a Council resolution, of those who have been imprisoned by the courts of justice for breaking the law. The extremists are naturally jubilant over this triumph, and with such nurture is it any wonder that a revolutionary movement thrives?

### **V.—Akali Movement in the Punjab.**

But the most sinister manifestations are to be found in the Punjab, where for the first time a section of the Sikh rural population, one of the most virile and martial races in India, and one that has hitherto been noted for its loyalty, is now arrayed in open hostility to the British Government, and has more than once recently come into conflict with our armed forces.

The reasons which have alienated a large and growing section of the Sikhs, who from a population of less than 2½ millions furnished over 120,000 of our best oriental fighting material during the war, are too lengthy to be traced in this article. They are to be found partly in the mentality of the Sikhs, whose sterling qualities as stout soldiers, stalwart husbandmen, and enterprising pioneers in the remote regions of the Empire are often combined with a stubborn fanaticism, an overweening vanity and an undue sense of their own importance. Tact and firmness are essential in dealing with such a people.

The movement of the reforming Sikhs is actuated partly by genuine religious feeling, partly by cupidity, viz., by the desire to take possession of the great Sikh shrines and their wealthy endowments—often granted by former rulers long before the reformed Sikh religion was evolved by the tenth Sikh Guru, and confirmed to the old orthodox incumbents by the British Government. The “reformers” have, within the last few years, forcibly seized nearly all the endowments in open defiance of the law, and are now using them as a “war chest” in their struggle with a supine Government.

The Punjab authorities have shown neither tact nor firmness in handling the situation. They have shifted rapidly from conciliation to repression and back again from repression to conciliation in a manner which has caused despair to their friends and aroused the contempt and defiance of their enemies. The popular view was well summed up recently by a loyal leader of the orthodox

Sikhs in these words: "How long can a Government last from whom its friends have nothing to hope, its enemies nothing to fear." The Sikh is the worst man in the world to run away from. But, as the history of the Sikh wars prove, once you make it clear to him that you are the better man, but quite ready to give him a fair chance, from a dangerous enemy you convert him into a staunch friend. That was the policy followed by Lord Gough *after* he had smashed the Sikh armies at Chillianwala and Gujrat, and his name is still held in honour among the Sikh greybeards.

The present writer had a similar experience on a lesser scale when in charge of the Punjab. During the first year of the war some ten thousand Sikhs returned from the Pacific coast of America and the Far East, imbued by crafty Indian seditionists working under German inspiration with violent revolutionary and anti-British ideas. Some two thousand of them were intercepted at the Indian ports and interned in their native villiages, or if particularly dangerous, in custody during the war; the rest rapidly spread over the Punjab and at once began the campaign of murdering Government officials and loyal Sikhs, establishing depots of arms and explosives, cutting communications, endeavouring to seduce Indian troops, in fact the same programme that during the last year has been pursued by the Babbar Akalis ('lion-hearted immortals') of the Central Punjab. But at that time the Sikh population in the Punjab was actively loyal, and with their help and that of the Sikh States—Patiala, Sind, Faredkot, Kapurthala (who have since been unwisely removed from the political charge of the Punjab Government in pursuance of the Reform Scheme) the rising was speedily suppressed. By the time that twenty of the leaders had been hanged for rebellion and murder and some 80 or 100 transported for similar offences by the speedy judicial methods sanctioned by Lord Hardinge's Government, the rest realised that the game was up, and were allowed to settle down quietly in their villages under the supervision of their kinsmen and neighbours. They gave no more trouble during the war, nor even in the speedily suppressed rebellion of April, 1919. But encouraged by the recent ferment among the reforming Sikhs, the vacillation of the authorities, and the reduction within the last year of over 4,000 men in that splendidly loyal force, the Punjab Police, they have now raised their heads again. It is those men, reinforced by recruits from among Sikh ex-soldiers, that, under the guise of religious reformers, are the most dangerous element among the Akalis and the backbone of the murder and terrorist gangs of the Central Punjab. It is to be hoped that before these pages are in print this sinister conspiracy will have been broken up by the drastic military measures forced on a Government which had disbanded an efficient police force, and that there will be no more **parleying with rebels**.

Any delay would have most dangerous results; for not only



will the movement grow locally, but it will be, as it has already been, seized upon by the extremist leaders in other parts of India as a heaven-sent means of keeping alive in the Punjab—now the storm centre of India—the flame of seditious agitation, which elsewhere is showing signs of dying down. But here, too, the hands of Government are weakened by the action of the Punjab Council. In their hearts the great majority of the Mohammedan, Hindu and even Sikh members strongly disapprove of the Akali pretensions, the ultimate aim of which is the restoration of Sikh domination in the Punjab. But publicly they have not the courage to express their real views, and vote steadily in favour of a general amnesty to the Akali convicted criminals, and against any preventive measures, *e.g.*, the maintenance of the armed police for dealing with the emergency.

#### VI.—Working of the Reformed Councils.

The three years' term of the first Reformed Councils is just expiring, and some reference has been made to their working in the foregoing remarks. In some respects they have fulfilled expectation, in others they have lamentably failed. In maintaining the correct *forms* of parliamentary procedure and the amenities of debate, they have been successful, owing partly to the tact and judgment of the official Presidents, partly to the presence of a fairly strong official element, but mainly to that sense of propriety and courtesy which is innate in most orientals, when not perverted by bad example or evil counsel. It is when we come down to the character of their work that disappointment arises. Of any real constructive capacity within the wide field of administration allotted to their control—education, agriculture, industries, public health, excise, local self-government, etc.—there have been few signs.

The general attitude has been one of captious criticism and often open hostility to the administration—especially the sections outside their statutory control—based on the fallacy that any action which weakens the authority of Government must strengthen the growing freedom of India. Hence the votes or resolutions—generally carried in opposition to Government—in the All-India Assembly and the Provincial Councils for sweeping reductions in the army (220,000 for a population of 320 millions), and particularly in the British troops (about 60,000), and the Indian Police (about 150,000) by refusing to vote the necessary supplies. Hence also the throwing out of the Prince's Protection Bill, and the refusal to vote provision for the Royal Commission on the Services. Hence, too, the demands for the immediate Indianisation of the commissioned ranks in the army, though an adequate supply of suitable Indian candidates is admittedly not yet available (the Madras politicians have been most insistent in this demand, but the *Madras Gazette* of 11th August states that when a committee presided over by the

Governor to receive applications for admission to Sandhurst recently met, not a single applicant came forward from the 40 millions in the Madras Presidency), for abolishing the posts or cutting down the emoluments of British civil officials especially in the Imperial Civil Service (less than 1,200 British members) and substituting Indian agency regardless of qualifications, and, above all, for the complete and unconditional amnesty of political criminals.

In these matters the All-India Assembly and the Provincial Councils have displayed a racial bias, a lack of responsibility, and an inability to understand present or visualise future conditions which almost reduces one to despair. If even a fraction of these resolutions were given effect to, the administration, civil and military, to-day would be in a state of complete paralysis, and disorder and sedition would be rampant all over the land. As it is, the complaisance of the central and some of the provincial Governments in accepting, in whole or part, certain of these resolutions, *e.g.*, for the amnesty of political offenders, for the reduction of the army below the margin of safety, for the repeal of security legislation on the eve of the Moplah rebellion, for the reduction of the police in the Punjab, has been a chief cause of many of the recent and present troubles. The conclusion is that, when racial questions or the maintenance of law and order are involved, neither the All-India Assembly nor the Provincial Councils can at present be trusted for a reasonable and impartial decision. In these all-important matters they certainly fail to voice the views and the needs of the Indian masses, whose first desire is that the Government should give them the blessings of peace and security, and who realise that these cannot be secured without a firm and impartial administration of the law; and that owing to racial feuds, sectarian animosities and caste differences, this can only be guaranteed by an adequate army with a strong British nucleus, and by a strong British element in the civil administration.

### VII.—Economic Policy of the Reformed Councils.

The All-India and provincial legislatures have been persistent in their efforts to reduce public expenditure. Their action in this matter would be laudable if the axe was applied impartially to all branches of the administration, and not mainly to the army and the British services and if at the same time something was done to equalise taxation, which, though very light in the aggregate, is very unevenly distributed. For example, there are no Death Duties; income from land is not subject to income tax, though many great landlords have rent rolls exceeding £100,000 a year; and the total income tax receipts from 250 millions of people are only about £15 millions annually. The failure of the All-India Assembly in two successive years to vote the extra taxation required to balance a budget, which in the last five years has shown successive deficits approaching 100 million sterling, and thereby restore

India's financial credit, compelled the Viceroy this year to certify that the additional tax on salt must be imposed as necessary in the interests of India. The storm that this perfectly constitutional action aroused is now a matter of history. It has proved to be a storm in a teacup, and in a few weeks another "bogey" which Indian and some Anglo-Indian politicians declared would shake the Government of India and the Home Government to their foundations was dispelled. The debate on the subject in the House of Commons in July was a refreshing indication that Parliament would no longer be terrified by "bogey," and though the Labour Party insisted on a division, the speeches of their leaders showed that they, too, had begun to realise the hollowness of this spurious agitation. It is true that any taxation on a necessary of life is an evil. But Governments cannot be carried on without some such taxation. In Great Britain to-day, how many of the necessities of life are taxed up to the limit? The British working man pays to the State a tax of threepence on every ounce of tobacco he smokes, on every pint of beer he drinks, on every pound of sugar his wife purchases, and sixpence or eightpence on every pound of tea or coffee. In India the tea, sugar and tobacco of the Indian consumer are free of any tax. The only tax on a necessary of life is that on salt, and even with the enhanced duty this averages only threepence per head *per annum*. There is not much ground for popular grievance here, especially as the tax has only been restored to the pre-war level, from which it had been reduced without any adequate reason, and wages have at least doubled in the interval.

### VIII.—Protective Duties.

The solicitude which the Indian politicians professed for the dumb masses in respect of the salt tax does not, unfortunately, extend to more practical matters. Mr. Montagu, when carrying his Reforms Scheme through Parliament, secured its assent, at least in principle, to fiscal autonomy for British India. This would have been a just and reasonable concession had the Indian legislature, to whom the shaping of the tariff is entrusted, been fully representative of the peoples of India and an impartial arbiter of the conflicting interests involved. But the All-India Assembly was elected by only 180,000 votes out of a population of 320 millions, and represents only the small politically minded class, the great landlords, and the big commercial and industrial interests.

It is not surprising, therefore, to find that it is eager to manipulate the tariff entirely in favour of vested interests and at the expense of the Indian consumer. Already the tax duties on imported goods of all kinds have been raised to a pitch—10 to 33 per cent.—which is a grievous hardship to the consumer, for the price of the Indian-made article is at once raised to, at least, the level of the enhancement on the imported article. Thus

the duty on Manchester cottons, while it may bring in five millions sterling to the Indian exchequer, means that probably twenty millions are taken out of the pockets of the poor Indian consumer of the Indian-made article for the benefit of the Indian manufacturer. Small wonder that in these circumstances nearly half a million was subscribed by certain Bombay mills last year to Gandhi's movement for a boycott of imported goods, and that many Indian cotton mills have in recent years been steadily paying dividends of over 30, 50, and even 100 per cent., the price of country made cloth having been doubled. But where does the poor Indian peasant and labourer come in, whose interests it is our duty to protect while they remain in political tutelage? The Indian Government, in deference to the views of an unrepresentative Assembly, have rashly committed India to a policy of high protective duties. The Indian manufacturer is seizing the golden opportunity, and the great firm of Tata & Sons is now demanding that the duty on imported steel be at once raised from 10 to at least 33 per cent. so as to ensure their control of the steel industry. But there are growing indications that the consumer, and especially the agriculturists—90 per cent. of the total population—are realising that the policy is intended to enrich a small body of Indian manufacturers at their expense. In the recent debate on the subject in the Assembly, a Punjab non-official member declared that while the wealth of Bombay might increase through Protection, the Province which he represented—being almost entirely agricultural—would starve, for a tax on the *export* of food, grains, and other raw materials is also a plank in the Protectionist's platform. The Punjab official representative emphasised the same view.

But the most extraordinary admission came from the Hon. Mr. Innes, the member of the Government of India in charge of the Department of Commerce and Industry, which is responsible for the tariff policy. He said:—"In India we have a population of 300 millions. Most of them are poor and the standard of comfort is low. If the agricultural classes (90 per cent.) were able fully to grasp the issues involved in this question of Free Trade versus Protection, and if they were able fully to bring their influence to bear upon this Assembly, I doubt very much whether to-day this Assembly would accept my amendment (the Protection proposals of the Government). I doubt, indeed, whether I should be putting that amendment forward." Here we have a frank confession that in giving effect to the views of an Assembly representing 180,000 votes, the Government are disregarding the interests of over 300 millions of people who, owing to their political ignorance, are incapable of making their voices heard. Hitherto the British Government and the British official prided themselves on standing for the interests of these dumb masses. It is for the British Parliament, which is in the last degree "responsible for the welfare and advancement of the Indian peoples," to say whether the

present abdication of duty by its agents in India is consistent with the discharge of their responsibility.

### IX.—The Kenya Controversy.

The question of the economic and political status of the 20,000 Indians in the Kenya Colony has aroused in political circles in India an agitation the importance of which has been, perhaps, exaggerated in this country. The issue was seized upon, like the Akali question in the Punjab, by the extremist politicians, as providing a means of maintaining the Hindu-Mohammedan *entente* against the British Government, which, for reasons already explained, was showing signs of collapse. The more moderate sections, influenced partly by racial feeling, partly by the desire to remain in the limelight, associated themselves with the movement, and refused to see more than one side of a very complex question. The Government of India, taking the voice of a few hundred politicians to be the voice of India, instead of adopting a policy of impartiality and restraint towards a matter in which high Imperial issues were involved, sought popularity and enormously increased the difficulties of His Majesty's Government by identifying themselves, as in the case of the Protection policy, with what they regarded as the Indian view. But the Imperial Government, disregarding the futile threats of the Indian delegation, which was headed by the Rt. Hon. S. S. Sastri, that non-acceptance of their demands would drive India to find a solution by force, as in the case of Ireland, imposed a settlement\* which every impartial man must regard as wise and statesmanlike, and one which the Indians in Kenya, if not stirred up by agitators in India, would welcome as just. For it concedes to the Indians in Kenya rights far greater than what their own countrymen of the privileged classes allow to their brethren of similar status in India. It remains to be seen whether the solution will be seriously challenged. In pro-roguing the All-India Assembly on 28th July, Lord Reading said:—"They (H.M. Government) have announced their decision and the Government of India must consider it and arrive at its conclusions. If submission must be made, then, with all respect to H.M. Government, it can only be under protest."

This is an amazing attitude for the representative of H.M. Government to assume towards the considered decision of that Government. However, the Government of India have themselves, in a recent statement, receded from a position which could only have been defended by resignation. But on the announcement

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[\*The decision of the Imperial Government was that there should be no segregation and no racial discrimination as to immigration. The highlands are reserved to the whites, and the lowlands are experimentally reserved to the Indians. The Europeans will elect eleven members to the Legislative Council, the Indians five and the Arabs one, with nominated members in a majority. Election will be on a communal basis. Editors B.D.Y.B.]



of the Home Government's decision, the Legislative Assembly hurried through in a single day a Bill empowering the Government to adopt retaliatory measures against immigration to India from the Dominions, and were deaf to all advice from the Government representatives against hurriedly taking a course so petulant and ill-advised. This action was followed by the usual frothy denunciations of the Imperial Government and the Dominions by public meetings and public bodies in most of the large towns, and by the resolutions of the National Congress to boycott British Empire goods, and to consider the advisability of working Swaraj independently of a British connection. These need not be taken very seriously, for not one in a hundred of the population knows or cares anything about Kenya, "The shallows murmur, while the deeps are dumb." But the attitude of the Government of India does not tend to allay the fictitious agitation.

Sir Malcolm Hailey, the House Member, in the Assembly went to the length of saying:—"To the Government, the distinctions made in the treatment of Indians in the Dominions were as galling as they were to Indians. To Englishmen in India the social disabilities of Indians overseas were cruel and undeserved, and such as every decent civilised man disapproved."

This language is most unjust to the Dominions and the Colonial Office. The Kenya settlement abolishes between Europeans and Indians that segregation which higher caste Indians rigidly enforce against the lower castes in India, and which Indians in Kenya themselves enforce against the native Africans; it gives the Indians in Kenya a communal franchise (as opposed to the common franchise with Europeans which they had claimed and which would enable them to dominate the Colony), which is what they have insisted on (and what the British in India have accepted) both in the Provincial and All-India Councils in India, and which at their desire, in view of the strong racial and sectarian feeling, is being steadily extended to all other representative bodies in India; it allows the Indians access to all public institutions and the enjoyment of all public facilities, though at least 50 millions of the "outcasts" and "untouchables" in India are, in practice, denied even elementary human rights, such as free use of public water supply, state schools, and sometimes even access to public offices and even to the public highway, because their very shadow is supposed to be a source of pollution to the "twin born."

Clearly the position of the Indian settlers in Kenya, vis-a-vis the white settlers, will be infinitely better than that of the lower castes in India (from which the Kenya settlers are mainly drawn), vis-a-vis their own brethren of the higher castes.

There is a legal maxim that he who seeks equity must come into court with clean hands, and Sir Malcolm Hailey would have been more effective if he had quoted to the assembly the passage in Scripture about taking "the beam out of their own eyes before

they looked for the mote in their neighbours." As it is, one can only hope that his speech and Lord Reading's will not provide fuel for a fire which, if left to itself, would have died down of its own inanity.

#### X.—An Indian View of the Present Situation.

The writer of this article left India in 1920 after the Reforms Scheme had been passed into law, but before it had been subjected to the test of actual experience. The preceding review may, perhaps, be regarded as coloured, however unconsciously, by a prejudice in favour of the old régime, when good administration in the interests of the people as a whole was the goal rather than hasty political development in the interests of the small intelligentsia. But even the most reactionary *laudator temporis acti* could not paint a more depressing picture of the present divisions and disillusionment of thinking Indians than that now being painted by some of themselves who have the courage to face facts.

The following is an extract from a recent leading article in *The Nation*, one of the most extreme of the Indian-edited journals in the Punjab:—

Never was national life in India since the birth of the new century in such tragic chaos as it is to-day. Socially as well as politically we are literally wallowing in the slough of despond, and but for the subtle magic of hope we would before long be sunk into the deep sea of despair. There is hardly any political unity to talk of. Moderates and extremists were separate enough, but to-day even these two denominations have become as effete as the movements they represented. To-day you have the loyalists, the co-operators, the oppositionists, the obstructionists, the Swarajists, the unionist non-co-operators, the diehard non-co-operators, and the anarchists. Tyranny and temptation has squandered them all like pebbles on a seashore. No shame, no disgrace, however great, can bring them on a common platform. Self-seeking egotism masquerades under the name of leadership, and patriotism for once has truly become the last resort of scoundrels. Great men and pious men we have still amongst us, leaders of whom any country could be proud can still be counted in our vanguard, but the rank and file has been inundated with nonentities and mediocrities.

Social life is in a worse chaos, however, than our political life. There is a manifest lack of civic education, and a deplorable ignorance of civic responsibility amongst the people. The communal riots in Multan, followed by similar outbreaks in Amritsar, Ajmere and Meerut, are a vivid proof of our narrowness, our fanaticism and our intolerance. Religious leadership has drifted from the saint to the devil, and honest men and women have become easy dupes of unscrupulous machinators or imprudent fanatics.

This vivid picture is, perhaps, too sombre—young India being as prone to pessimism as to over-confidence—but of its general truth there can be no doubt. Another extremist organ, the "Pratap" of Amritsar, formerly a most virulent opponent of British rule, had its eyes opened by the fierce Hindu-Mohammedan riots. Within the last year these outbreaks have caused much bloodshed and loss of property and trade to that great and once prosperous city, and but for the timely arrival of British troops would have left it a smoking ruin. The "Pratap" had the candour to

say that "it had been established that the British troops were an absolute necessity in India, and that anyone who asserted the contrary was an enemy of his country's welfare."

The feelings embodied in that remark have become even more general since the Akali Sikhs have gone out on the warpath. But the disquieting feature is that few, if any, of the advanced politicians in the Councils, while holding those views, will venture to give them public expression. The majority in the Councils still regard it as a patriotic duty to hamper and obstruct the authorities in dealing with every emergency.

### XI.—Conclusion.

So far we look in vain to the Reformed Councils for that spirit of co-operation and that sense of responsibility which Parliament, in the Statute of 1919, laid down as essential to the successful working of the Reforms and to their future extension. In the next few months new Provincial and All-India Councils will be elected. It is possible that the participation of a section of the extremists who had hitherto stood aloof may accentuate the hostility of those bodies to the administration. But those of us who recognise the great sane and loyal forces latent in India, outside the small "politically minded" class, and the signs of their awakening to the evils threatening nearly every branch of the administration, owing to the neglect of the Government and the folly or selfishness of the politicians, are more hopeful. It is possible and even probable that this awakening may be reflected in the new Councils. If only the Governments—Central and Provincial—would identify themselves more closely with these reasonable and loyal elements, now pathetically groping for guidance and support, instead of studying almost exclusively the "grievances" of the advanced politicians, whom nothing short of our clearing out of India will satisfy, there need be no serious anxiety as to India's future.

But a change in the whole outlook of Government in India on India's problems is just as necessary as a change in the attitude of the Councils themselves. For the last four years all real progress—political, social and economic—has been hampered by the false atmosphere so easily created in India, the absence of candour and plain-speaking, the foolish belief that it was preferable to risk the interests of 320 millions of people rather than offend a few hundred politicians by speaking the truth. The outburst which Mr. Lloyd George's frank speech of August, 1922, provoked in "political" India reveals the strength of that feeling; the speeches of Lord Reading and Sir Malcolm Hailey in the Kenya debate reveal its inveteracy.

How different from the robust atmosphere of the recent debates in the House of Commons on the Salt Tax and the Kenya Question? What a pity that something of that atmosphere cannot be transported to India?

The most serious evil resulting from the present want of firmness in high places is the rapid growth of inefficiency in the administration. Few Europeans and still fewer Orientals will work well under a Government that does not know its own mind. Hence the desire of the British official to clear out of a country where he can no longer serve with credit and self-respect at the earliest possible movement. Within the last 18 months there have been 150 premature retirements of British officials in the two most vital services—the Civil Service and the Police. The results to the administration are disastrous and are patent in the growing disorders. At the same time few British candidates of the right type are forthcoming to fill up the gaps, and the consequent over-rapid Indianisation of the services is causing serious anxiety, not only to the Home Government—the Government in India appeared last year to contemplate the extinction of the British services with equanimity—but to all the best elements in India.

But here again mark the perverse attitude of the All-India Assembly, which summarily rejected the vote for the expenses of the Royal Commission—of which half the members are Indians—recently appointed to examine and report on the question of the future strength and method of recruitment of those services.

Even in the Council of State or Second Chamber, where more wisdom and moderation might have been expected, the Rt. Hon. S. S. Sastri, perhaps the most prominent Indian politician of to-day, on 28th February, said:—"The services belong to India, and it is not a question of fixing the proportion of Indians, but of allowing non-Indians (British) to enter *on sufferance*."

Sir T. B. Sapru, late a member of the Government of India, and its representative at the Imperial Conference, in a letter in the *Morning Post* of 7th June, identified himself with Mr. Sastri's views. This may be the voice of Brahminism claiming that thousands of years' domination over all other races and castes gives it a charter of privilege and race ascendancy. But it is not the voice of the Indian peoples, who know that such liberty as they enjoy is due to the British administration and the British official, for they alone stand for that great democratic principle of the equality of all men before the law, which is anathema to the privileged classes in India. What they really want is not democracy, but the transfer of power and office to the privileged higher castes. The position has been admirably summed up by Sir W. Vincent, formerly a member of the Government of India and a stout champion of the Reforms, in a recent speech in London:—"A transfer of power at the present moment would certainly not be the transfer of power to a democratic Government, but a transfer from one oligarchy to another." It would have been well if this truth had been expressed earlier

Indian progress was never so beset with difficulties as since we have endowed her with the forms but not the spirit of democracy. Whether that spirit can be developed in an oriental environment, where hereditary privilege, caste differences, racial feuds, religious animosities have hitherto prevented the growth of any democratic or even national spirit, remains to be seen. At the present time the democratic forms seem merely to have made the old lines of cleavage more acute by affording them more means of expression.

What then should be our line of action? We must go on doing all we can to make that experiment a success, but, in doing so, we must not endanger the interest of 320 millions for the benefit of the million or so who are "politically minded." We cannot do our duty by these 320 millions without a strong British element in the various branches of the administration sufficient to maintain those standards of integrity, impartiality, and solicitude for the dumb masses which have in the past been our pride and our justification in India. Those standards are already deteriorating owing to the waning of British influence and the rapid reductions of the small British element in the administration—only some four or five thousand in all the Civil Services. The writer cannot summarise the policy now needed more appropriately than by quoting an extract from a recent letter to him from Mr. Asquith. He wrote :—" While whole-heartedly supporting the Indian Reforms Scheme, I have always felt that these reforms must be gradual and not precipitate, that the maintenance of a considerable British element in the services is essential, and that the grievances of that British element should be redressed and guarantees given them for the future."

Compare this broad and statesmanlike declaration with the narrow racial jealousy of the "Moderate" leaders in the All-India Legislature, and is it any wonder that the British official in India demands that his future should be guaranteed, not by the latter body, but by the Imperial Parliament, to whom the All-India Legislature is subordinate. There never was a time when India stood more in need of British brains, British character and British standards of administration than in the fateful era through which she is now passing, and which will determine her future course—upward to an orderly, progressive Government, more and more based on the will of peoples slowly emerging into the light of civilisation, or downwards into the abyss of racial and religious feuds, caste privileges and rigid social barriers, from which we have for 150 years been endeavouring to rescue her.



## II. Indians Overseas.

### Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru's Speech.

At the meeting of the Imperial Conference, Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru made a statement regarding Indians in the Dominions and Colonies, of which the following contains the essential points :—

The problem of Indians overseas is of vital importance, not only to India, but to the whole of the Empire. Whatever may be our position in regard to self-government, howsoever distant we may be from that cherished dream of ours, so far as this question of Indians overseas is concerned we stand solid and united. We have our own domestic quarrels; we have moderates and extremists; we have non-co-operators; and we have Hindus and Mahomedans. But so far as this question is concerned, let me tell you, with all the sincerity that I am capable of, that we stand absolutely united. Do not be misguided by what appears in certain papers here which attempt to show that there is no feeling on this question. We attach far more importance to the honour of our nationals in other parts of the Empire than probably you realise. We express that feeling in the vernacular of our own country by a comprehensive and delicate phrase which I have no doubt will readily be understood by Lord Curzon and his Highness the Maharajah—that phrase is “Izzat.” There is not a man either among the Princes or among the humblest subjects of His Majesty who does not attach great importance to that question of “Izzat.” When “Izzat” (which means honour) is at stake, we prefer death to anything else. That is our sentiment, and it is in that light that I present my case to you.

Do not forget that my country, India, is the one country which makes the British Empire truly Imperial. I take pride in that. I do not indulge in the slightest degree in reflection upon the dignity or honour or position of any one of the Dominions, but I do claim that it is my country which makes the British Empire truly Imperial. One-fifth of the human race, with a far more ancient civilisation than your own, joins with you in acknowledging the suzerainty of our common Throne. That allegiance with us is a real living thing. Shake that allegiance and you shake the foundations of the entire fabric with consequences which it is difficult to over-estimate. . . . I have never witnessed before what is happening in India to-day. Five years ago it may have been possible for you to say that a wide gulf divided the masses from the classes. Let me now give you this warning, The classes lead the masses as never before. India has rapidly changed, and that is the outstanding feature of the situation there. The intellectuals, or, if you like to call them, agitators, have gained ascendancy over the masses. What the intellectuals think to-day the masses will think to-morrow.

Do not forget the growing and increasing influence of the

vernacular Press. I do not justify or vindicate its attitude in every respect. I will, however, state the facts. It now penetrates into the innermost recesses of our villages, and every village has got a reader who reads for the illiterate people the vernacular newspapers. I have been reading extracts from the vernacular Press of my own country, and while I do deprecate the wild language in which it has indulged, let me tell you frankly that it is seething with indignation over this question, and that is affecting the whole outlook of my countrymen in the villages.

I am not willing to enter at length into the merits of the Kenya decision, but my countrymen expect me and my Government expects me, and I am bound by all considerations of honour and duty, to put you in full possession of the sentiments of my countrymen and of my Government in regard to your decision. They have received that decision with the utmost possible dismay. I know the official view is that in certain respects our position in Kenya has been improved. That is not a view we share. Let me tell you, on behalf of my countrymen, that neither my country nor the Government which I have the honour to represent will accept this decision as final. Upon this question, which concerns the honour of our nationals in Kenya and the honour of our nationals overseas, there is no difference between us, from the Viceroy downwards.

Having explained the depth and implication of Indian feeling, I will now proceed to explain the circumstances in various parts of the world by which this feeling is at present aggravated. There are about 1½ million Indians now settled in other parts of the Empire, and in many parts they are subjected, as Indians, and quite irrespective of how well they shape up to local franchise standards, to grave political and even economic disabilities.

Let me start my brief survey of these grievances by paying a tribute to the Government of New Zealand. That Government, in its own territory at least, treats Indians on a footing of equality with all other inhabitants of the country. And my countrymen can live there among the New Zealanders as fellow-citizens in honour. In Australia, also, the disabilities which Indians suffer are comparatively small. We hope that before long legislation will be passed to enable them to exercise the Dominion franchise, and to remove the disqualification they at present suffer in regard to invalid and old-age pensions. In certain States there are minor disabilities, which I hope it will not be hard to remove. If I have failed to convince Mr. Bruce, I hope he will at least extend to me the hand of fellowship on this question; I am willing to co-operate with him to devise methods for a solution of these difficulties. In Canada there is a small population. In British Columbia there is no Dominion, provincial, or municipal franchise.

I come to the most difficult part of my task—South Africa. In South Africa the problem is most serious. Here there are

161,000 Indians, of which all but a few thousands, mainly resident in Cape Colony, have no political franchise. In Natal, besides this, they fear to lose the municipal franchise. In the Transvaal there is no franchise of any kind. Nor is it only of political subjection that my countrymen complain. They also suffer under severe economic handicaps. In Natal they are restrained in acquiring town lands in townships. In the Transvaal they are prohibited, either as individuals or as companies, from acquiring land; and in the gold area they may not occupy land. To make their lot more miserable, the laws governing the grant and regulation of traders' licenses are administered in a manner which strikes directly at their own interests. Moreover, the Union Government, of which my friend, General Smuts, is the head, is even now contemplating legislation which will provide for the compulsory segregation of Indians in urban areas by restrictions on the ownership and occupation of land.

From the self-governing Dominions I shall pass on to the Colonies and very briefly allude to our position there. In British Guiana I gladly acknowledge that our Indian population can live on terms of honour and equality of treatment. In Fiji my countrymen demand more adequate representation, based on a satisfactory franchise, in the legislative bodies; they also ask for the settlement of a minimum wage based on the cost of living; they ask for the removal of the poll tax, which presses very hardly upon them. They ask, further, that land should be given to them for settlement. They ask, and I have received a cable from an important quarter, that if these grievances are not removed they should be repatriated.

In Kenya the Indians desire a common roll instead of a communal franchise. They protest against the administrative veto which prevents them from acquiring land from willing European sellers in the highlands and they fear that the immigration restrictions may be employed in such a way as to prejudice the development of the Colony by Indians. In Uganda the Indians are pressing for representation by election, rather than by nomination, on the Legislative Council; and in Tanganyika, which my countrymen helped to win for the Empire, they have certain grievances which, I understand, are at present under the consideration of the Colonial Office. Thus, wherever we may turn, we see circumstances in the local status of Indians which are not to be reconciled with India's national aspirations or with the position which she will obtain as the result of the declared policy of His Majesty's Government—a position which I hope to achieve much sooner than some people realise.

Having thus reviewed the position in the self-governing Dominions and the Colonies, let me tell you what the position was that was taken by this Conference in 1921. The resolution then passed was as follows:—

"The Imperial Conference, while reaffirming the resolution of the Imperial War Conference in 1918, that each community of the British Commonwealth should enjoy complete control of the composition of its own population by means of restriction on immigration from any other communities, recognises that there is an incongruity between the position of India as an equal member of the British Empire and the existence of disabilities upon British Indians lawfully domiciled in some other parts of the Empire. The Imperial Conference accordingly is of the opinion that in the interests of the solidarity of the British Commonwealth it is desirable that the rights of such Indians to citizenship should be recognised.

"The representatives of South Africa regret their inability to accept this resolution, in view of the exceptional circumstances of the greater part of the Union.

"The representatives of India, while expressing their appreciation of the acceptance of the resolution recorded above, feel bound to place on record their profound concern at the positions of Indians in South Africa, and their hope that by negotiation between the Governments of India and South Africa some way can be found, as soon as may be, to reach a more satisfactory position."

The resolution divides itself clearly into three parts. I will take up the first part, which deals with the question of immigration. It gives each Dominion the fullest and the freest right to regulate the character and the composition of its own population. I am bound by that. You are bound by it, but just as I am bound by it you are also bound in honour by the second part of the resolution, which really is the most vital part with which I have got to deal, except, of course, that portion which relates to South Africa. Let there be no misgiving about the question of immigration. There is a growing sentiment in my country that we should not send our nationals outside anywhere. We do not want our nation outside India to appear as a nation of coolies. We have had enough of that. There is plenty of scope for the conservation of the energy of my countrymen in my own country. We want them to rise to the full height of their stature in our own country. The Dominions, therefore, need have no fear on that account.

I have just said that as I felt bound in honour by the first part of the resolution I consider—and I hope I am not demanding anything extravagant from you—that you are also in honour bound by the second part of the resolution. I will be absolutely frank. I will exclude South Africa, because South Africa stood out. I make no appeal to South Africa on the basis of the second part of the resolution, but I will ask the other Dominion Prime Ministers what my countrymen and what my Government are asking in India—namely, what steps have been taken, or are proposed to be taken, to honour this three-year-old agreement?

I have come to you in the name of my Government, and in the name of the many millions of my countrymen, to make an earnest appeal, a sincere appeal, to join hands with me in devising some methods such as your statesmanship will enable you to do, methods intended to give effect to the principle of equality embodied in the resolution of 1921. I earnestly suggest that what the occasion demands is a united effort if we are to find a solution for this difficult problem, a problem which threatens at no distant date to acquire almost the character of a problem of foreign policy. . . . My resolution is :—Let the Dominion Governments, who have an Indian population, let His Majesty's Government in areas under their direct control, such as Kenya, Uganda, Fiji, and other places where there are Indians resident, appoint Committees to confer with a Committee which the Government of India will send from India in exploring the avenues how best and how soonest the principle of equality implicit in the 1921 resolution may be implemented. And lest the course of the inquiry be prejudiced, I will couple with my proposal the request that any anti-Indian legislation which may be pending should be stayed until the report of these joint committees is available.

That is my resolution. At once I propose to remove any misapprehension which may be lurking in the minds of anyone who has listened to me. I do not want a Central Committee. I want a Committee appointed by each Dominion within its own borders, and I want the Committee appointed by each Dominion to confer with the Committee which will be appointed by the Government of India and which will go to each Dominion. That is my appeal to the Dominions, except, of course, to South Africa, under the resolution of 1921. I make the same earnest appeal to His Majesty's Government, and especially to the Duke of Devonshire and the Colonial Office, in so far as the resolution relates to the Colonies.

I will in a few words tell you what, in my humble judgment, are the advantages to be gained from my resolution. In the first place you gain time, and that will enable us to calm the angry passions that have arisen in India on this question. In the second place, India will be undoubtedly in a more hopeful frame of mind, and we all of us can bring all the more forces available to us to bear upon the solution of this problem. In the third place, my resolution absolutely safeguards your independence—I mean the independence of the Dominions.

I now turn, perhaps, to the most difficult part of my work, and that is my address to General Smuts. I frankly recognise that I cannot address him on the basis of the resolution of 1921. He was no party to it. But I address him on three specific grounds : first of all, as a humanitarian ; secondly, as an Imperial statesman ; thirdly, as the Prime Minister of South Africa. General Smuts has been trying to devise means to bring peace to a distracted



world. Is he going to exclude from that happy mission of his his country and mine? For let me tell you that there shall be no peace unless he includes his country and my country within the ambit of his big proposals. I tell him frankly that if the Indian problem in South Africa is allowed to fester much longer, it will pass beyond the bounds of a domestic issue, and will become a question of foreign policy of such gravity that upon it the unity of the Empire may founder irretrievably.

I will make an appeal to the Conference itself. I believe, and honestly believe, that the British Empire stands for justice and equality in the eyes of the world. Within its borders it comprises a large number of populations of coloured races. How are you going to keep Indians, or, for that matter, all the other coloured races, within that Empire? By force? Never, because, apart from the obvious limitations of force, you cannot be untrue to your own traditions of liberty, justice and equality; you cannot afford to ignore and neglect the world opinion on this question. By preserving and safeguarding our sentiments? Certainly. That will be the strongest tie you can have, and it remains for you to make use of it. Fulfil our aspirations within our own country for self government, fulfil our aspirations for a position of equality inside the Dominions and inside the Colonies, and India will stand shoulder to shoulder with you through thick and thin.

Think, again, of the ties which bind us together, if you will allow them to do so. King George is your King, but our Sovereign. The devotion to his person and to his Throne is a very real thing, notwithstanding what some wild and extravagant men may say in my country. The plea of all my countrymen is for equality within the great King's Empire, including his Dominions. On that there can be no faltering or weakening on my part. I invite you to devise means with me to give effect to this cherished ambition of my countrymen.

Sir Tej Saprú's plea was sympathetically received by the Prime Ministers of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Newfoundland and the Irish Free State: General Smuts re-stated the reasons why Indians in South Africa cannot be granted the franchise; with equal manhood suffrage there could be no distinction between Indians and natives, and the whites would be swamped. For white South Africa, said General Smuts, it is not a question of dignity but of existence, and no Government dare tamper with it. The Duke of Devonshire, on behalf of the Colonial Office, approved of the proposed Committees, but intimated that he saw no prospect of modifying certain decisions recently taken as to Kenya; decisions which, Sir Tej Saprú repeated, could not be accepted by India as final.

### III. Professor Rushbrook Williams' Report.

Professor F. L. Rushbrook Williams, Director of Public Information, Government of India, in the annual report to Parliament on India, issued as a Blue Book [Cmd. 1961], under the title, "India in 1922-23," makes a candid, sympathetic and comprehensive survey of Indian aspirations, problems and progress. He shows that, however certain political questions may divide educated India, upon that of the treatment of Indians in other parts of the Empire there is complete unanimity. It is not generally recognised that among India's aspirations is a desire for an Indian Navy, and this at a time when, on the military side, the call is all for economy. The latter is quickened by improved relations with Afghanistan and the report of the Inchcape Committee which proposed drastic cuts in expenditure in many departments. "But," Professor Rushbrook Williams points out, "it is not always realised by Indian spokesmen that nowhere else in the world is the defence of 320 million people secured at a cost of between two and three rupees per head."

Referring to the pending election in India, on which the immediate future working of the Legislatures depends, the writer discusses the causes of the decline of non-co-operation and the secession of many followers of Mr. Gandhi from the programme of boycott of the Legislatures. "As his influence waned, so did the idealistic side of non-co-operation wither and decline. The self-reliance which he held so dear became merged, in the case of many, into an exaggerated self-assertion, which culminated in racial and communal hatred, a regrettable consequence, which coloured the later stages of his whole movement and seems destined to outlive it. Only when this has passed away will it be possible to determine if the national awakening which enthusiasts have seen in non-co-operation is anything more than a dream."

On the question of India's material progress, it is shown that there is considerable indirect as well as direct evidence of improvement in the economic position of the Indian peasant under British rule. The suggestion that India is victimised by an extravagant Government is answered by the statement that the average incidence of taxation, including industrial profits, is just over Rs. 6 (8s.) per head per annum.

The roots of Indian poverty are to be found in certain long-standing customs and deficiencies, which make for distress as the population increases, while resources are confined within traditional limits by caste precedent. There are, however, signs of change from which much in time may be hoped.

# The Geographical Position of the British Empire\*

By VAUGHAN CORNISH, D.Sc.

## Part I.—The Position which has been occupied.

THE British Empire, although situated in every continent, with shores on all the oceans, is seen to have a definite geographical position when we consider the ports of call which unite its lands and the naval stations which guard the communications. During the growth of the Empire eastward and westward from Great Britain, numerous harbours were held at different times, those retained being a selection unrivalled by the ports of any other State in commercial and strategic position. Our many oceanic islands give us, moreover, an important advantage in the selection of maritime stations for aircraft.

The naval station of Bermuda, well withdrawn from aerial attack, has a central position in the great western embayment of North America intermediate between the ocean routes which connect Great Britain with Canada and the West Indies. No foreign ports flank the route between Canada and the west coast of Great Britain. At the western gateway of the South Atlantic we have excellent harbourage in the Falkland Isles. Malta, the capital of our Fleet in the Mediterranean, has a commanding position at the Straits which connect the eastern and western basins, and the naval station at Gibraltar helps to ensure the junction of the Home and Mediterranean Fleet and to protect the Cape route. Our status in the Sudan, the vulnerable frontier of Egypt, is still maintained, and the British army which is kept in Egypt as garrison of the Suez Canal ensures our use of this gateway as long as we can navigate the Mediterranean. If that navigation be interrupted, we can still oppose the seizure of the Isthmus, for we are able to send reinforcements by way of the Red Sea. East of Egypt the British island of Perim stands in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, and the garrisoned fuelling station of Aden provides the necessary port of call on the routes to Bombay and Colombo. Colombo, in the Crown Colony of Ceylon, is at the parting of the ways for Australia and the furthest parts of our Asiatic possessions, and Singapore stands at the narrow gateway of the shortest route between India and the Far East.

The Cape route to India and Australasia is improved by British

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\*This address was delivered by Dr. Vaughan Cornish as President of the Geography Section of the British Association, at Liverpool, in September, and is printed here by his kind permission.

ports of call in Sierra Leone, St. Helena, and Mauritius, and is more effectively dominated from British South Africa than at first appears, for although there is open sea to the south, there are no useful harbours in the Antarctic continent, and on the African coasts the harbours are under British control for a thousand miles from Cape Town.

Of the six great foreign Powers, the French alone are posted on the flank of both routes between Great Britain and the Indian Ocean, and no Great Power has its home territory on that ocean, or railway connection thereto from its home territory.

Thus the principal lands of the British Empire—Canada, the British Isles, South Africa, India, and Australasia—have good communications with one another across the Atlantic and Indian Oceans both in peace and war.

The conditions of strategic communication across the North Pacific, on the contrary, are adverse to us, owing mainly to the circumstance that we opened up British Columbia across the prairies and by the coasting voyage. Had our colonising route been across the Pacific, the Hawaiian Islands, which were first brought into touch with the Western world by the ships of the Royal Navy, would have been a British settlement and one of our first-class naval stations. As things happened, however, these islands were first needed by the Americans, and now form the essential western outpost of the United States Navy. Between them and British Columbia the ocean is empty of islands, and Fanning Island, south-west of Hawaii, with the adjacent small coral islands in our possession, are no adequate substitute, even apart from overshadowing by a first-class naval station in the neighbourhood. Thus there is no good strategic communication between Australasia and Canada across the North Pacific. In this connection it must be remembered that cousinship does not relieve the American Government from the obligations which international law imposes upon neutrals. It was not until three years after the outbreak of the Great War that America could offer us any facilities in the harbour of Honolulu which were not equally open to Germans. It must also be noticed that we have no control of the Panama route between New Zealand and Great Britain.

Turning to the question of communication between British Columbia and India, it is important to realise that the Pacific coasts of North America and Asia are in a direct line with one another, forming part of a Great Circle, so that there is no short cut across the ocean, as the map misleadingly suggests. Thus the course between Vancouver and Hong Kong is not only very long, but also closely flanked by the home ports of Japan and many outlying Japanese islands, so that its security in time of war depends upon the attitude of the Japanese.

When, therefore, we differentiate the routes on which we have

well-placed naval stations and recruiting bases from those dominated by the ports of some other Great Power, we see that the lands of the Empire are united by the Atlantic and Indian Oceans and strategically separated by the North Pacific. Thus the form in which the Mercator map is usually drawn by British cartographers, with Canada in the upper left and Australasia in the lower right corner, is a good representation of our maritime Empire. It shows the lands as connected by the Atlantic and the Indian but not by the Pacific Ocean; Great Britain, the naval and military headquarters of the Empire, on the central meridian; and Port Said and Cape Town as connecting positions between the western and eastern parts of the Empire.

Upon this map a symmetrical distribution of our lands is revealed when a Great Circle is drawn connecting Halifax in Nova Scotia, the eastern terminal port of the Canadian Pacific Railway, with Fremantle, the western terminal port of the Australian railway system. This truly direct line, twisted on Mercator's map into the form of the letter S, extends just half-way round the meridians but is somewhat shorter than the semi-circumference of the globe, the difference of latitude between Halifax, N.S., and Fremantle being less than ninety degrees. The line passes through Lower Egypt close to the Suez Canal following the general direction of the Main Track of the Empire, which is the steaming route from Canada to Great Britain, and thence by the Suez Canal to India and Australia. At one end of the line lies the Canadian Dominion, and at the other Australasia, to the north the British Isles, and to the south the Union of South Africa, the chief homes of the British nation. Our coloured peoples are also distributed symmetrically about the line, India being on the east, the Crown Colonies and the Protectorates of Africa on the west, so that it is the axis of symmetry of the Empire. Not far from its middle point is the Isthmus of Suez, where our direct line of sea communication is crossed by the only continuous route for the international railways which will connect our Indian and African possessions, and adjacent to the Isthmus is the central station of our airways.

Such is the form and position of the British Empire, regarded as a maritime organisation, which, in fact, it is.

The Empire thus mapped has an intermediate position among the commercial, national, religious, and racial communities of the world such as is occupied by no other State. The ocean routes must always be the link between the two great land areas of the world, and in the present state of land communication provide the connection between the numerous independent systems of continental railways. The chief of these systems is based on the ports of Continental Europe, of which the greatest communicate with the ocean, and therefore with other railway systems, by way of the English Channel. Thus the island of Great Britain is



intermediate between the principal termini of the European railways and the other railway systems. Its harbourage is unequalled by that of any country of Continental Europe, and its supply of shipbuilding material and coal exceptionally good. Thus the physical characters of the island accord with its position on the commercial map, and the metropolitan British in their intermediate position have become the chief common carriers of international commerce. Much of this profitable business used to be in the hands of smaller European States, whose commerce eventually suffered from their inability to defend themselves against more powerful neighbours. Our merchant shipping is protected by the Royal Navy, but owing to the recent development of fighting aircraft, ships of war can no longer protect the island itself, and since the close of the recent war this citadel of the Empire, the home of two-thirds of the white population, has been more exposed to attack from the Continent than at any previous time during the last eight hundred years.

The Suez Canal, where we have the principal control, is the gateway between the railway termini of Europe, the greatest manufacturing centre of the world, and those of the monsoon region of Asia, the greatest centre of population. It is also on the shortest route between the railways of North America and India.

The commercial and strategic importance of Singapore as an intermediate position between India and the Far East is enhanced by the circumstance that railway communication between them is debarred by the greatest mountain system in the world.

Hong Kong, at the chief gateway of Southern China, is typical of British maritime stations both in its intermediate position and in the facilities provided for the ships of other nations, which swell the vast tonnage entered and cleared at the port.

How far-reaching is the effect of our intermediate position is revealed by the important but little recognised fact that it is the British naval stations which would, if available, provide America with the best line for reinforcement of the Philippines, the Achilles' heel of the Republic. The distance of Manila from the naval shipbuilding yards of the United States is almost exactly the same by Suez and Panama, but the Pacific connection has never been good owing to the great distance between stations, and is now worse than before the Great War on account of the island mandates acquired by the Japanese. The relation of Port Said and Singapore to America and the Philippines is only one of many cases in which our position is intermediate between the home and Colonial possessions of a white nation. Thus the important French possession of Indo-China has to be reached from France either by way of the Suez Canal, where we maintain a garrison, or by rounding the Cape, where we have a national recruiting base as well as a station of the Royal Navy. The true significance of our intermediate position has, however, been generally missed owing to a

one-sided interpretation of strategical geography. An intermediate station, particularly a naval station, has commonly been regarded as a blocking position, a barrier where freedom of movement can be interfered with. The historical fact is, however, that the harbours of the British Empire have also been a link between nations. In the Great War the British Empire was the link of the Allied and Associated Powers, and its geographical position is unequalled for making a benevolent alliance effective or checkmating the action of an alliance formed with a sinister purpose.

The British Empire provides in Canada the one link between the European and American divisions of the white race, for public opinion in the United States adheres to the view that the New World, in the sense of North and South America, should be shut off and sheltered from the evils of a bad Old Europe.

In tropical Australia the British, in the exercise of their discretion, have set up a barrier between the white and coloured races. Australia is a land almost empty of aboriginals, which has for the most part a climate in which British children thrive and develop true to type. In the great basin of the Murray River and its confluent, not far from the huge superficial deposit of brown coal in South Victoria, is a combination of fertile soil, forcing sun, water for irrigation and cheap electric power transmitted from the coal-field. This favoured region, the "Heart of Australia," as it has been called, with a population of only three million, is equal in size to France, Italy, and Germany combined, which have a population of more than one hundred and thirty million. The problem of Australian settlement is, however, complicated by the circumstance that the northern coast-lands lie in the tropics, and have a climate which makes field work very arduous to white men. It is, moreover, uncertain if British families would continue true to ancestral type in this climate. If, however, settlers from the neighbouring monsoon lands of Asia be admitted, whose descendants would rapidly increase, it would be impossible to maintain a colour line between tropical and temperate Australia, and the rough labour of the Commonwealth would in time be done by coloured people. The fact that this labour is cheap would result in the employment of a great number of coolies instead of the use of machinery, and Australia might become a land of coloured workmen and white overseers. Circumstances, therefore, forced the Australians to decide whether their tropical belt should be a link or a barrier between white and coloured labour. The decision to erect a barrier was taken early, and has been consistently maintained. The strategic responsibility of the decision is seen to be very great when we look into the future and reflect on the facts of population.

Of the 1,650 million people in the world, the whites number about 500 and the coloured 1,150. The former are mainly grouped on the two sides of the North Atlantic Ocean; of the latter, the

greater part, about 800 million, are in the monsoon region of Asia, which includes India, Indo-China, China proper, and Japan. The Australian British are far from the main body of the white race and from Great Britain, the chief recruiting base of their own nation. On the other hand, the distance by sea between Townsville, Queensland, and the Japanese coast is no longer than the course of the coasting steamers from Fremantle to Townsville; and the other lands of Monsoon Asia are even nearer than Japan.

Enough is known of the relation between geographical environment and national well-being to declare with confidence that the decision to erect a barrier against coloured labour in tropical Australia is best both for the white race in Australia and for the coloured people of the monsoon region of Asia. Not only is Government much more difficult with a two-colour population, but the admission of coolie labour would deteriorate the national character of the Australians, for history shows that the greatest nations are those which provide their own working class. Turning from the occidental to the broader humanitarian view, it is only necessary to look ahead in order to see that the admission of Asiatic coolies to a British homeland is unkind to their descendants. Those that remain unmixed in race will have a stunted existence as a community cut off from full national life, whilst the case of mulatto descendants is almost worse, for the children are not brought up in the family of the British parent, and yet are cut off from the full tradition of Asiatic civilisation. Fair better, then, that the Asiatic coolie should remain where the family life of his descendants will be part and parcel of national life.

Neither should it be assumed that there is not room in Asia for a large additional population. The pressure of population in China is largely due to the undeveloped condition of mining, factories, and communications. The coal-fields are unsurpassed in the world, and iron ore is abundant; if they were worked, and factories were based upon them, the new occupations and improved market for agricultural produce would provide at home for many of those who now migrate oversea. The rise in standard of living which may be expected to follow industrial development would also reduce coolie competition in the white borderlands of the Pacific. The further development of manufacture in India would operate in the same direction. The growth of a manufacturing population in China and India would stimulate cultivation and stock-rearing in the sparsely inhabited region under Asiatic rule which runs diagonally across the meridians from the Persian Gulf to the Amur, and includes the eastern provinces of Persia at the one end and Mongolia and Manchuria at the other. This has for the most part a light rainfall, but comprises much fine prairie country and some good agricultural land, whilst in the more arid tracts there are many great rivers fed from snow-fields and glaciers which could be made to irrigate large areas where

the sun is as strong as in Australia. Adjacent to the Indo-Chinese peninsula are the East Indies, whose climate is suited both to Indians and Chinese, with great tracts of undeveloped land whose productivity is attested by luxuriant forest. The sparsely peopled regions of Asia near to India, China, and Japan by land and sea, and for the most part connected with them by ties of civilisation, provide an area for the overflow from these countries which is more than twice as large as tropical Australia and British Columbia, together with California, Washington, and Oregon, the American frontier provinces of English-speaking labour.

India includes one of the most important borderlands within the Orient, that of the Mohammedan and Hindu worlds. The Punjab, with its great rivers and plain, is in such striking contrast to the mountains and plateau of Iran that we are apt to lose sight of the fact that, climatically, it more resembles the highland on the west than the rainy valley of the Ganges on the east. It is an eastern borderland of Islam, a religious world which is mainly comprised in the belt of dry country which stretches diagonally from the Atlantic shore of Morocco to the Altai Mountains. Delhi, under the Great Moghul, was an advanced capital of the Mohammedan world just within the Ganges valley, which is the headquarters of Hinduism. In this sub-imperial capital the two antagonistic civilisations are now linked to the government of the United Kingdom, and the age-long wars between them have ceased.

Up to the time of British predominance, India was the terminal position of Continental conquerors unused to the sea, who did not develop the advantages of a salient maritime position. The ports of India lie conveniently for a long stretch of coast-land on the great gulf which forms the Indian Ocean, and now, owing to the facilities provided by British shipping, much of this coast-land has easier communication with India than with its own continental interior. Several British possessions in the parts of Africa adjacent to the Indian Ocean are in the intermediate position between the principal homelands of the black peoples and the overflowing population of India, and nowhere has the responsibility of our intermediate position called for more careful examination of the rights and interests of competing coloured races. The decision with reference to Kenya which has just been given by the home Government recognises the main physical regions in the coloured world as political divisions of the Empire within which the established races have special rights.

The Union of South Africa is the racial home of white men and of the more numerous coloured people who are indigenous to the country. It is, therefore, largely a land of white overseers and coloured labour, but here, as in the other Britains beyond the seas, there is an opposition to the introduction of coloured blood into white families which is not met with where Latin races

are similarly situated. The Dutch families are at one with those of British stock in the maintenance of this racial barrier.

From the foregoing facts it is clear that the British people, metropolitan and Colonial,\* are in a greater degree than any other nation the doorkeepers of the world in respect of economic, strategic, and racial communications.

### Part II.—The Consolidation of the Position.

The consolidation of the position which the British nation has won turns upon the future of colonisation within the Empire. We must, therefore, compare the number of the metropolitan and Colonial British with that of other peoples within and without the Empire, and take account of the relation between the present population of the world and the area of its empty lands. The British Empire comprises the fourth part of mankind, but the ratio of white to coloured people in the Empire is only about one to six. The former are mostly of British stock, and belong to the Christian world. The latter are of many stocks, differing physically from each other as much as from the white people, and belonging to diverse religions. Their population is steadily increasing under British rule, and some of them have recently made advances in political organisation and industrial efficiency. Consequently, if the Empire is to be guided by the British, the numbers of our race must also increase. There is, however, a school of thought which considers that if our ideals of ethics and efficiency are once accepted by the coloured peoples, the racial complexion of the Empire will be unimportant, as public affairs will be regulated by our principles. This point of view, which may be termed in a general sense the missionary standpoint, does not take account of the contingency that British ideals implanted in coloured stock may receive alien development in future generations owing to biological causes. Our confidence in Western culture in general, and the British version of that culture in particular, is based more upon the power of adaptation which it has shown in our hands since the Renaissance and the Era of Oceanic discovery than upon any system of which we can hand over a written prescription. It is only in our own national communities, mainly composed of British stock, with minorities nearly akin, that we can be confident that British ideals will develop typically in the way of natural evolution. Therefore in our own interests and in that of the coloured races (who conflict among themselves) it is desirable to maintain the present proportion of the British stock, to whom the Empire owes the just administration of law and a progressive physical science.

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\*The introduction of the term "Dominion" served to suggest emancipation from the Colonial Office, but the word Colonial as descriptive of a people has permanent historical value and therefore should not be allowed to lapse.



The co-operation of the Union of South Africa in the Great War only became possible after the failure of an insurrection by part of the Boers. Since the number of persons of Dutch and British stock is about equal, an influx of British colonists is required in order to ensure unanimity between South Africa and the rest of the Empire.

Passing to the ratios between British population and foreign nations, we have to note that the population of Australia stands to that of Japan as about one to ten. The Japanese are a patriotic as well as an advanced nation, and claim equality with the white nations from patriotic motives. It is evident, therefore, that a strong reinforcement of British population is needed to maintain the doctrine of a white Australia. For the same reason New Zealand also needs reinforcement, since Australasia is strategically one.

The number and density of the population of Canada is exceeded in the proportion of about ten to one by the white population of the United States, hence it is inevitable that there should be a large flow of people from the latter country to the Dominion. As it is essential to unanimity in the Empire that the Canadians should continue to be British in sentiment and not become pan-American, a large immigration from Great Britain is required in Canada. Moreover, the population of Continental Europe outnumbers that of Great Britain\* in the proportion of something like ten to one, and as emigrants go to Canada from many European countries, there is a further call for British immigrants to maintain the British character of the Dominion.

We have next to note that the population of Great Britain, which is now forty-three million, outnumbers the combined population of Canada, Newfoundland, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand in the proportion of two and a-half to one, and increases more rapidly than that of all these Dominions, more than three and a-half million being added in the decade 1901-11, in spite of an emigration which much exceeded the immigration. Thus the chief source available for the British peopling of the Dominions is the metropolitan, not the Colonial, population.

In 1891 the late Mr. G. Ravenstein calculated from the rate of increase of population the time which remained before the unoccupied lands of the world would be settled and developed in accordance with their agricultural capabilities. This period he reckoned at about two centuries, by which time the population was calculated at 6,000,000,000 instead of the 1,600,000,000 which it had reached in 1891. The figure must not be taken to indicate the final population of the world, about which we know nothing,

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\*In the present condition of home affairs in Ireland it seems best to leave its population out of the numerical reckoning for Imperial purposes.

but the epoch marks finality of a certain kind—namely, the end of the colonising period of history as colonising has hitherto been conducted. The world will then be completely parcelled out among the nations, and since it is very difficult to displace a nation, it is probable that those which occupy the world at the end of the colonising period will remain in possession for a long time, even as time is reckoned in the pages of history. If we allow a generation for the setback of the War, we may roughly reckon our zero-time as 1923 instead of 1891, which, on the basis of Mr. Ravenstein's figures, would still give about two centuries, or six generations, in which to provide the temperate climates of the British Empire with a sufficiency of British stock to ensure the continuance of their British character.

There is, however, a school of thought which sees the salvation of the home country in a reduction of its population. I take their strategic argument first. It is contended that Great Britain would be safer in time of war if it had no more people than its farms can feed. Judging by France and the former Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, this would be about one-half of our present population, for our country is small though fertile. The conditions of our strategic security have, however, undergone a great change since 1914. The best plan of campaign for a combination of European Powers bent on overthrowing the citadel of the Empire would be an attack by combined air-fleets, which could be concentrated on London, the great manufacturing towns, and the shipbuilding yards, wholly destroying them one by one by intensive bombardment. This plan would be more effective than naval blockade, which it is very difficult to make complete, and is liable to bring in new belligerents owing to interference with neutral shipping.

In order to have strategic security in this island, we must therefore be able to meet the air-force of a European combination as well as carry out our traditional plan of despatching a powerful expeditionary force for the support of a friendly Power. This active defence requires large population and high development of technical industries, and therefore could not be sustained by a rural Britain.

The economic argument for reduced population has received ready but uncritical assent owing to the great want of employment since the War. It is stated that this island will never be able to support in proper comfort a population of forty-three million, the present figure. But the population which can be sustained in a country depends jointly upon internal resources and geographical position. The commercial position of Great Britain is more favourable than that of any other island of equal size, and the large amount of good coal, besides iron ore and beds of salt, enable full advantage to be taken of the geographical position in manufacturing for export. According to the estimate

made in 1905, the stock of accessible coal in the United Kingdom is sufficient to last more than four hundred years at the present rate of output, and an estimate made in 1915 gives a yet larger stock. Moreover, no change in the distribution of available minerals can ever do away with the commercial advantage conferred by our central and focal position on the natural maritime routes. Hence the population which can be supported in Great Britain depends upon services to outside nations to a much greater extent than in most countries.

The population which can be maintained in our home country depends, therefore, to an exceptional degree upon the population and prosperity of the rest of the world, so that when the world again gets into its stride there should be improved conditions here, and as the population of the world grows so should the number of jobs in the country increase. There is, therefore, no sufficient ground for stating that we have passed or reached the limit of population which the island can ever support.

The teaching of those who advocate reduction of population as the salvation of Great Britain includes eugenic and ethical arguments. Thus it is said that very small families conduce to a high standard of civilisation since more care can be devoted to the child. This, however, leaves out of account the educative influence of the children of a family upon one another. Everyone knows that an only child is at a disadvantage in life. The world being of both sexes, and the society in which we move mainly of our own generation, the full home training for life is only obtained if each child have a brother and sister, which implies a family of at least four.

The desirability of birth-restriction among the poorer classes is strongly pressed on the plea that we are breeding to an increasing extent from inferior stock, and thereby lowering the national type. As far as the allegation relates to defectives, it is indisputable that most of them are among the poorest of the poor, and that their breeding is an injury to the community, as is also the admission of defective or criminal aliens, but these are categories quite apart from our great working-class community.

The professional families are far too few to maintain the supply of original genius needed for this country's advance, for genius is largely in the nature of a sport, and has to be replenished from a very large reservoir of population. To recruit the professions entirely from the present professional families would, therefore, in the long run be fatal to originality. On the other side of the picture, a working-class home is the best preparatory school for the colonial frontier, where to have few wants is better than the possession of many attainments.

We are told that an increase of population in Great Britain will pack the slums and thereby reduce us to the "C 3" category

of physique, but this argument takes too little account of the redistribution of urban population which has been going on for the last forty years. The density of population in central London has diminished, and factories have sprung up along the railways which radiate from the town. In 1911 the five counties surrounding London, with their two included county boroughs, contained no less than one million residents born in London who had migrated into these more rural districts. Migration, it should be observed, whether to or from the town, prevents the close breeding which used to be a serious disgenic factor in villages.

In 1911 the birth-rate in the towns of England and Wales was higher than in the rural areas,\* and the Registrar-General's Report states that even when these figures are corrected for the movement of the people the rural districts would only have increased at the same rate as the country at large, adding that "these facts are worth noting in view of the assumption, sometimes loosely made, that the population of the towns would cease to increase if it were not recruited from the country." In this connection it should also be noted that the proportion of London residents who are London-born has steadily increased from 1881 onwards.

The growth of our towns is no longer haphazard, but has entered on the stage of planning.

A great abatement of the contamination of town air by smoke has been shown to be practicable, and it is largely in the matter of smoke and crowding that towns have been hygienically inferior to the country, for country cottages are often as bad in themselves as slum houses, and their water supply much inferior. Moreover, the hygiene of towns has always been dependent on the circumstance that here the health of many people is affected by the carelessness of a few, and it follows that the hygienic conditions of urban life are capable of immense improvement when scientific knowledge becomes general. The experience of the War has shown that the popular notion of the inferior moral of townsmen was unduly pessimistic, for our urban regiments not only showed intelligence, but exhibited a sustained valour which has seldom been surpassed in the long annals of military history.

That emigration to the Dominions brings some economic benefit to the home country cannot be gainsaid, for trade returns show that an emigrant to the Dominions buys as much here as eleven emigrants to the United States, and therefore as much as many foreigners; but those who fear additions to our people also fear the moral effects of emigration. They say that emigration will take the best and leave the worst, and so produce a disgenic

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[\*The returns issued in November show that, whilst the birth-rate for the third quarter of the year in England and Wales was abnormally low, being 19.8 per 1,000 of population, the rate for London was 20.5, ranging from 41.6 in Finsbury to 9.8 in Westminster.—EDITORS, B.D.Y.B.]

effect in the home country. But the individual emigration of to-day differs in this respect from the group migrations under political compulsion, or for conscience sake, which inflicted eugenic loss upon Spain, France, and England in bygone days. The best lad for the Dominions is not necessarily the best for the home country, and an Empire which comprises urban as well as rural States requires young men whose business tenacity is sufficient to resist the restlessness of youth not less than those who are instinct with the spirit of the frontiersman.

That a relative increase of female migration would benefit national character cannot be gainsaid, for at present the Dominion frontiers lack the due weight of feminine influence, whilst in Great Britain many women are denied the full development of their character which some natures only attain by wedlock and motherhood. The census of 1911, unaffected by War losses, shows an excess of about 1,300,000 females in Great Britain and a deficiency of about 750,000 in the Dominions. The inequality of distribution as between Great Britain and the Dominions limits the possible marriage-rate, and therefore the total births, in a way to which no other nation is equally subject. If the numbers in the Dominions be equalised as the result of special encouragement of female emigration, there will still remain a large excess of women in Great Britain who cannot be paired in the Empire unless the stream of emigrants who now leave the Empire can be for the most part deflected to the Dominions. In Great Britain the total number of families is limited by the number of males. In dealing with the size of family needed to maintain or increase population, I do not reckon the present surplus of nearly two million women resulting from the joint effect of migration and war. At present our community appears to be in a transitional stage between the limitation of the family by chance and by choice, but the census shows, from the present age of marriage in Great Britain and the number of deaths before this age, that a general preference for the family of three children would not quite maintain the population, apart from migration. If, therefore, the size of family be universally decided by choice the number of the race cannot even be maintained, far less increased, under present conditions unless those who enter into matrimony cherish the ideal of a family of four children.

Unless the British race increase we cannot insure the internal peace and external security of the Empire, or the continuance of its beneficent work of enlarging commerce and restricting the range of war. Therefore the birth-rate in Great Britain should be maintained above the death-rate at least until the British population in the Dominions exceeds that in the Mother Country. The maintenance of the race will then rest chiefly with our people oversea, and, with their great resources, it should be possible for them to keep pace with the other growing nations.



# An Empire Synopsis.

## The British Empire.

Area, 13,909,782 sq. miles. Pop., 449,000,000.

Import Trade, £3,100,000,000. Export Trade, £2,900,000,000.

Empire Imports from United Kingdom, £311,663,000

Empire Exports to United Kingdom, £330,782,000.

### Europe.

UNITED KINGDOM.

Revenue, £1,124,879,873.

Expenditure, £1,079,186,627.

Imports, £1,085,500,000.

Exports, £810,319,000.

National Debt, £7,721,000,000.

ENGLAND. Pop., 1921, 35,678,530.

Area, 50,900 sq. miles.

SCOTLAND. Pop., 1921, 4,882,288.

Area, 29,796 sq. miles.

IRELAND. Pop., 4,494,000. Area,

32,560 sq. miles.

WALES. Pop., 1921, 2,206,712.

Area, 7,376 sq. miles.

ISLE OF MAN. Form of Government: Administered under own laws by Governor and Council. Pop., 1921, 60,238. Area, 227 sq. miles. Chief industries, agriculture, mining, fishing.

CHANNEL ISLANDS. Form of Government: Administered under own laws. Lieut.-Governor of Jersey, Maj.-General W. Douglas Smith, C.B.; of Guernsey, Alderney and Sark, Sir L. E. Keggell, K.C.B., K.C.M.G. Pop., 1921, 89,614. Area, about 76 sq. miles.

GIBRALTAR. Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Sir C. C. Monro, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G. Pop., 19,120. Area  $1\frac{1}{2}$  sq. miles. Revenue, £249,000. Expenditure, £289,000. A port of call and coaling station, and commands the entrance to the Mediterranean.

MALTA. Form of Government: Limited Autonomy. Governor, F.-M. Lord Plumer, G.C.B., G.C.M.G. Pop., 211,564. Capital, Valetta, pop., 44,143. Area (including the island of Gozo), 117 sq. miles. Revenue, £728,000. Expenditure, £710,000. Chief occupation, vegetable and fruit production. The great dockyard of the Mediterranean Fleet. Imports: £3,723,600 (from U.K. £1,250,000). Exports: potatoes, onions, oranges,

etc., value £812,000 (to U.K. £50,000). Public debt: nil.

### Africa.

ASCENSION ISLAND. Pop., 290. Area, 38 sq. miles.

BASUTOLAND. Form of Government: Under the South African High Commissioner (native chief has certain jurisdiction between natives). Resident Commissioner, Sir E. C. F. Garraway, K.C.M.G. Pop., 405,000. Area, 11,716 sq. miles. Capital, Maseru, pop., 1,400. Revenue, £210,000. Expenditure, £243,000. Chief occupation, agriculture. Imports: textiles, ploughs, hardware, value £556,000. Exports: grain, cattle, wool, horses, value £510,000.

BECHUANALAND. Form of Government: Protectorate, under South African High Commissioner (tribal chiefs have certain limited jurisdiction). Resident Commissioner, J. C. McGregor, C.M.G. Population, 125,000. Area, 275,000 sq. miles. Revenue, £85,000. Expenditure, £90,000. Chief occupation, pastoral. Public debt: nil.

GAMBIA. Form of Government: Colony and Protectorate. Governor, Captain C. H. Armitage, C.M.G., D.S.O. Pop., 250,000. Capital, Bathurst, pop., 8,000. Area, 4,000 sq. miles. Revenue, £183,000. Expenditure, £225,000. Chief occupation, ground-nut cultivation. Imports: cotton piece goods, kola nuts, rice, etc., value, £653,000. Exports: ground nuts, hides, etc., value £808,000. Public debt: nil.

GOLD COAST COLONY (with Ashanti and the protected Northern Territories). Form of Government: Colony and Protectorate, Governor, Brig.-Gen. Sir F. G. Guggisberg, K.C.M.G., D.S.O. Pop., 2,000,000. Capital, Accra, pop., 38,000. Area, Colony, 24,200 sq. miles. Ashanti, 20,000 sq. miles. N. Territories,

35,800 sq. miles. Revenue, £3,017,000. Expenditure, £3,285,000. Chief occupation, cocoa cultivation and gold mining. Imports: cotton goods, etc., value £7,901,000 (from U.K. 75.76%). Exports: cocoa, gold, kola nuts, palm oil and palm kernels, rubber and lumber, value £8,335,000 (to U.K. 42.26%). Public debt: £7,319,000.

**KENYA COLONY.** Form of Government: Colony and Protectorate. Governor, Sir R. Coryndon, K.C.M.G., Pop., 2,376,000. (Europeans 9,651.) Area, 246,822 sq. miles. Capital, Nairobi. Revenue, £1,892,000. Expenditure, £1,667,000. Chief occupation, agriculture. Imports: cotton goods, building material, machinery, etc., value £6,912,000 (from U.K. £3,516,000). Exports: cotton, coffee, hides, grain, rubber, copra, etc., value £5,061,000 (to U.K. £2,957,000). Public debt: £5,000,000.

**MAURITIUS.** Form of Government: Colony. Governor, Sir Hesketh Bell, K.C.M.G. Pop., 370,393. Capital, Port Louis, pop., 50,000. Area, 720 sq. miles. Revenue, £2,678,000. Expenditure, £1,649,000. Chief occupation, sugar growing. Imports: grain, cotton goods, hardware, etc., value £8,474,000 (from U.K. £2,704,000). Exports: sugar, rum, spices, fibre, etc., value £10,527,000 (to U.K. £9,002,000). Public debt: £1,273,000.

**NIGERIA.** Form of Government: Colony and Protectorate. Governor, Sir Hugh Clifford, G.C.M.G. Pop., 17,500,000. Capital, Lagos, pop., 73,000. Area, 335,700 sq. miles. Revenue £5,505,000. Expenditure, £5,411,000. Chief occupation, agriculture, tin mining, coal. Imports: cotton goods, hardware, tobacco, value £10,769,000. Exports: palm oil, palm kernels, cotton, cocoa, rubber, tin, coal, hides, mahogany, etc., value £8,028,000. Public debt: £13,609,000.

**NYASALAND.** Form of Government: Protectorate. Governor, Sir C. C. Bowring, K.C.M.G. Pop., 1,217,000 (1,015 Whites). Capital, Blantyre. Headquarters of Government, Zomba. Area, 39,573 sq. miles. Revenue, £268,000. Expenditure, £262,000. Chief occupation, agriculture, mainly cotton and

tobacco. Imports: cotton goods, hardware, agricultural machinery, value £638,000 (from U.K. £440,000). Exports: cotton, tobacco, rubber, value £416,000 (to U.K. £415,000). Public debt: £209,000.

**RHODESIA, SOUTHERN.** Form of Government: Responsible Government. Governor, Sir J. R. Chancellor, K.C.M.G. Pop., 34,000 Whites, 770,000 Natives. Area, 149,000 sq. miles. Capital, Salisbury. Revenue, £1,485,000. Expenditure, £1,315,000. Value of imports, £3,879,000 (from U.K. £2,017,000). Value of exports, £4,628,000.

**RHODESIA, NORTHERN.** Area, 291,000 sq. miles. Pop., 3,500 Whites, 928,000 Natives. Capital, Livingstone. Revenue, £235,000. Expenditure, £260,000. Chief occupation, agriculture, gold mining, tobacco-growing. Imports: manufactured goods, etc., value £741,000. Exports: gold, maize, rubber, tobacco, value, £505,000.

**ST. HELENA.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Lieut.-Col. R. F. Peel. Pop., 3,500. Capital, Jamestown, pop., 1,400. Area, 47 sq. miles. Revenue, £10,229; Expenditure, £11,178. Imports, £44,647. Exports: flax, fibre, value, £14,334. Public debt: nil.

**SEYCHELLES ISLANDS.** Form of Government: Colony. Governor and Commander-in-Chief, Sir J. A. Byrne. Area, 156,000 sq. miles. Pop., 24,500. Capital, Victoria. Revenue, £41,317. Expenditure, £41,259. Imports: manufactured goods, foodstuffs, value, £90,000 (from U.K. £28,000). Exports: copra, guano, vanilla, cocoanut oils, etc., value £111,000 (to U.K. £33,000). Public debt: £11,112.

**SIERRA LEONE.** Form of Government: Colony and Protectorate. Governor, A. R. Slater, C.M.G. Pop., 1,400,000. Capital, Freetown. Revenue, £638,000. Expenditure, £982,000. Chief occupation, agriculture. Imports: cotton goods, tobacco, etc., value £1,770,000. Exports: palm-oil, kernels, kola nuts, ginger, etc., value £1,625,000. Public debt: £1,730,000.

**SOMALILAND.** Form of Government: Protectorate. Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief, Lieut.-Col.

G. H. Summers. Pop., 300,000. Capital, Berbera, pop., 30,000. Area, 68,000 sq. miles. Revenue, £120,000. Expenditure, £203,000. Imports: rice, dates, cotton goods, hardware, etc., value £349,000. Exports: skins, sheep, cattle, gums, ostrich feathers, salt, value £318,000.

**SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF.** Form of Government: A Union consisting of four provinces, each having a Council elected under an Administrator appointed by the Governor-General. The Central Parliament consists of a Legislative Council and a Legislative Assembly. Gov.-General, the Earl of Athlone, C.M.G. Pop., Whites, 1,519,000, Natives, 5,409,000. Capital Pretoria, Pop., 42,000. Seat of Union Legislature, Cape Town. Area 473,100 sq. miles. Revenue, £28,884,000. Expenditure, £24,900,000. Imports: cotton goods, machinery, etc., value £51,557,000. Exports: diamonds, gold, wool, ostrich feathers, fruit, wines, etc., value £60,334,000. Public debt: £192,000,000.

**Cape of Good Hope.** Form of Government: Province of the Union. Administrator, Hon. Sir F. de Waal, K.C.M.G. Pop., 2,783,000. Capital, Cape Town. pop., 113,300. Area, 276,966 sq. miles. Exports: diamonds, wool, ostrich feathers, gold, maize, skins, fruit, butter.

**Natal.** Form of Government: Province of the Union. Administrator, Hon. G. T. Plowman, C.M.G. Pop., 1,429,000. Capital, Pietermaritzburg, pop., 36,000. Area, 35,291 sq. miles. Exports: coal, wool, fruit, grain, skins.

**Orange Free State.** Form of Government: Province of the Union. Administrator, Hon. Sir C. H. Wessels, Kt. Pop., 629,000. Capital, Bloemfontein, pop., 39,000. Area, 50,389 sq. miles. Exports: wool and agricultural products.

**Transvaal.** Form of Government: Province of the Union. Administrator, Hon. A. G. Robertson. Pop., 2,088,000. Capital, Pretoria, pop., 42,000. Area, 110,450 sq. miles. Centre of the gold fields.

**SUDAN (Anglo-Egyptian).** Form of

Government: Governor appointed by the King of Egypt with the approval of H.M. Government. Governor-General, Sir F. L. Stack, K.B.E. Pop., 3,400,000. Capital, Khartoum, pop., 30,000. Area, 1,014,400 sq. miles. Revenue, £4,069,000. Expenditure, £3,900,000. Imports: cotton goods, hardware, etc., value £5,206,000. Exports: cotton, ivory, gum-arabic, etc., value, £2,057,000.

**SWAZILAND.** Form of Government: Under the South African High Commissioner. Resident Commissioner, D. Honey. Population, 111,700. Capital, Mbabane. Area, 6,678 sq. miles. Revenue, £87,000. Expenditure, £95,000. Chief occupation, mining and agriculture. Imports: maize, hardware, provisions, etc. Exports: cassiterite tin and raw gold. Public debt: £92,500.

**UGANDA.** Form of Government: Protectorate. Governor and Commander-in-Chief, Sir G. Archer, K.C.M.G. Pop., 3,300,000. Native Capital, Mengo. Headquarters of Government, Entebbe. Area, 110,300 sq. miles. Revenue, £803,000. Expenditure, £1,014,000. Chief occupation, cotton growing. Imports: manufactured goods, agricultural machinery, value included in East Africa (Kenya). Exports: cotton, coffee, rubber, cocoa, cotton seed, value £1,540,000.

**ZANZIBAR.** Form of Government: Protectorate, the High Commissioner being the Governor of Kenya Colony. British Resident, A. C. Hollis, C.M.G., C.B.E. Pop., Zanzibar, 113,000; Pemba, 83,000. Area, Zanzibar, 640 sq. miles; Pemba, 380 sq. miles. Chief occupation, clove industry, yielding bulk of world's supply. Revenue, £456,000. Expenditure, £385,000. Imports: cotton piece goods, rice, copra, etc., value £3,223,000 (from U.K. £284,000). Exports: cloves, copra, cotton goods, etc., value £3,246,000 (to U.K. £428,000). Public debt: £100,000.

## Asia.

**ADEN.** Form of Government: Under the Bombay Presidency. Political Resident (acting as military and civil Governor), Major-General

**T. E. Scott, C.B.** Pop., 46,000. Area, 80 sq. miles. Fortified naval coaling station. Revenue, Rs. 5,73,500. Imports: manufactured goods, etc., value £6,011,000. Exports: coffee, gums, skins, dates, figs, value, £5,155,000. Includes, as dependencies, islands of Perim(coaling station), Kuria-Muria and Socotra.

**BAHREIN ISLANDS** (Persian Gulf). Form of Government: Under British Protection with a ruling Arab chief. Political Agent of Government of India (working under the Resident on the Persian Gulf), Major C. Daly. Pop., 100,000. Capital, Manama. Chief occupation, pearl fishing and transit trade with Arabia. Imports: piece goods, foodstuffs, etc. Exports: pearls, rice, coffee, dates.

**BRITISH NORTH BORNEO.** Form of Government: Administered by the British North Borneo Company, under Royal Charter. Governor, Maj.-Gen. Sir W. H. Rycroft. Pop., 208,000. Capital, Sandakan, pop., 8,256. Area, 31,000 sq. miles. Revenue, £372,000. Expenditure, £440,000. Chief occupation, rubber and tobacco growing. Imports: cotton piece goods, hardware, etc., value £901,000. Exports: tobacco, timber, rubber, value £924,000. Public debt: nil.

**BRUNEI** (Borneo). Form of Government: Sultanate under British protection. Sultan, H.H. Mohamed Jamalulalam, K.C.M.G. The High Commissioner is the Governor of the Straits Settlements. Pop., 32,000. Capital, Brunei, pop., 10,000. Area, 4,000 sq. miles. Revenue, £18,800. Expenditure, £23,000. Chief occupation, mining. Imports: textiles, etc., value £84,300. Exports: coal, cutch, rubber, rotans, sago, value £136,900. Public debt: £49,860.

**CEYLON.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Sir W. H. Manning, K.C.M.G., K.B.E. Pop., 4,750,000. Capital, Colombo, pop., 213,000. Area, 25,481 sq. miles. Revenue, £4,708,000. Expenditure, £6,118,000. Chief occupation, tea and rubber cultivation. Imports: cotton goods, hardware, etc., value £26,205,000 (from U.K. £4,363,000). Exports: tea, rubber, coffee, coconut products, value £25,660,000 (to

U.K. £7,906,000). Public debt: £7,794,000.

**CYPRUS.** Form of Government: Under a High Commissioner with usual powers of a Colonial Governor. High Commissioner, M. Stevenson, C.M.G. Pop., 315,000. Capital, Nicosia, pop., 18,461. Area, 3,534 sq. miles. Revenue, £658,000. Expenditure, £678,000. Chief occupation, agriculture. Imports: manufactured goods, etc., value £1,449,000 (from U.K. £545,000). Exports: cotton, wine, currants, wheat, barley, etc., value £918,000 (to U.K. £208,000). Public debt, £215,000.

**HONG KONG AND KOWLOON.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Sir R. E. Stubbs, K.C.M.G. Pop., 598,000. Capital, Victoria, pop., 320,000. Area, 390 sq. miles. Revenue, £2,364,000. Expenditure, £2,099,000. The shipping centre for European trade in the Far East. Imports: mainly manufactured goods, value £61,213,000 (from U.K. £6,941,000). Exports: ginger, hides, drugs, etc., value £60,978,000 (to U.K. £607,000). Public debt: £1,485,000.

**INDIA.** Form of Government: Dependency, with Diarchical institutions granted under the India Government Act, 1919. Viceroy and Governor-General, The Earl of Reading, G.C.S.I., G.C.B., etc. Pop., 319,000,000. Capital, Delhi, pop., 233,000. Area, 1,802,629 sq. miles. Revenue, £113,153,000. Expenditure, £141,945,000. Chief occupation, agriculture. Imports: textiles, machinery, sugar, oil, hardware, metals, cutlery, etc., value Rs.232.59 lakhs (from U.K. 60.2%). Exports: yarn and textile materials, hides and skins, dyes, grain, tea, jute, etc., value 314.00 lakhs (to U.K. 21.8%). Public debt: £635,720,000. High Commissioner in London: Sir P. R. Achariyar, K.C.S.I.

**MALAY STATES, FEDERATED.** Form of Government: Four Sultanates federated under British protection; Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Pahang. High Commissioner, Sir L. N. Guillemand, K.C.B.. Total pop., 1,037,000. Total area, 27,506 sq. miles.

**Perak.** 7,800 sq. miles. Pop., 494,000.

**Selangor.** 3,196 sq. miles.

Pop., 294,000.

**Negri Sembilan.** 2,500 sq. miles.

Pop., 130,000.

**Pahang.** 14,000 sq. miles.

Pop., 119,000.

Revenue, £6,352,000. Expenditure, £13,345,000. Imports: manufactured goods, etc., value £12,007,000 (from U.K. £3,103,000). Exports: rubber, tin, cocoanuts, rice, etc., value, £15,745,000 (to U.K. £1,645,000). Public debt: £4,760,000.

**MALAY STATES, NON-FEDERATED.**

**Form of Government:** States acting on advice of British Government Advisors; Johore, Jedah, Perlis, Kelantan and Trengganu.

**SARAWAK (Borneo).** Form of Government: Sultanate under British protection. H.H. Charles Vyner Brooke, Rajah of Sarawak. Pop., 600,000. Area, 42,000 sq. miles. Capital, Kuching, pop., 25,000. Revenue, £331,000. Expenditure, £272,000. Chief occupation, rubber growing and gold mining. Imports: manufactured goods, value, £1,501,000. Exports: rubber, pepper, sago-flour, petroleum, timber, etc., value £1,788,000. Public debt: nil.

**STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.** Form of Government: Colony, comprising Singapore, Penang and Malacca. Governor, Sir Lawrence N. Guillemard, K.C.B. Pop., 846,000. Capital, Singapore, pop., 387,000. Area, 1,600 sq. miles. Revenue, £4,614,000. Expenditure, £4,134,000. Imports: tin ore, rice, cotton goods, opium, petroleum, etc., value £68,126,000 (from U.K. £7,822,000). Exports: tin, gum, spices, gambier, sago, rubber, etc., value £58,025,000 (to U.K. £5,724,000). Public debt: £18,600,000.

**WEI-HAI-WEI.** Form of Government: Leased with adjacent islands from China. Commissioner, A. P. Blunt, C.M.G. Pop., 147,000. Total area, 286 sq. miles. Revenue, \$199,000. Expenditure, \$237,000. Used by H.M. Fleet in summer as a sanatorium and exercising ground; also a health resort for Europeans residing in the East. Possesses gold and other mineral wealth, not yet, however, worked to any extent. Imports: cotton goods, food-stuffs. Exports: ground-nuts, fish, etc.

## Australia.

Commonwealth, consisting of States of New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia. There are a Senate or Upper House and a House of Representatives or Lower House. The States have their own Legislature (consisting of a Legislative Council and a Legislative Assembly) and Governors, the latter being appointed by the Crown. Governor-General, Rt. Hon. Lord Forster, G.C.M.G., Prime Minister, Rt. Hon. S. M. Bruce. Pop., 5,426,000. Capital, Canberra. Area, 2,974,000 sq. miles. Revenue, £64,897,000. Expenditure, £77,930,000. Imports, £131,809,000. Exports, £117,913,000. Public debt of Commonwealth, £411,000,000. Public debt of States, £506,880,000. High Commissioner in London: Rt. Hon. Sir Joseph Cook, G.C.M.G.

**New South Wales.** Form of

Government: State of the Commonwealth. Governor, Admiral Sir Dudley de Chair, K.C.B., M.V.O. Pop., 2,049,000. Capital, Sydney, pop., 838,000. Area, 310,367 sq. miles. Revenue, £35,638,000. Expenditure, £36,967,000. Chief occupation, sheep farming. Imports: iron and steel, machinery and plant, value £55,000,000. Exports: wool cattle, sheep, skins, etc., value £42,591,000. Public debt: £180,796,000.

**Queensland.** Form of Government: State of the Commonwealth. Governor, Sir Matthew Nathan, K.C.M.G. Pop., 756,000. Capital, Brisbane, pop., 190,000. Area, 670,000 sq. miles. Revenue, £12,311,000. Expenditure, £12,450,000. Chief occupation, stock farming, sugar growing. Imports: textiles, plant and machinery, value £10,790,000. Exports: wool, meat, gold, live-stock, copper, dairy produce, value £15,782,000. Public debt: £85,691,000.

**South Australia.** Form of Government: State of the Commonwealth. Governor, Maj.-Gen. Sir G. T. M. Bridges, K.C.M.G., C.B., D.S.O. Pop., 495,000. Capital, Adelaide, pop., 257,000. Area, 380,070 sq. miles. Revenue,



£7,772,000. Expenditure, £7,826,000. Chief occupation, agriculture. Imports: textiles, machinery, etc., value £10,847,000. Exports: fruit, wines, foodstuffs, wool, butter, etc., value £13,389,000. Public debt: £54,389,000.

**Tasmania.** Form of Government: State of the Commonwealth. Governor, (vacant). Pop., 213,527. Capital, Hobart, pop., 45,000. Area, 26,215 sq. miles. Revenue, £2,180,000. Expenditure, £2,302,000. Imports: machinery, textiles, plant, etc., value £1,905,000. Exports: wool, grain, fruit, gold, copper, tin, etc., value £2,460,000. Public debt: £21,945,000.

**Victoria.** Form of Government: State of the Commonwealth. Governor, Earl of Stradbroke, K.C.M.G. Pop., 1,530,000. Capital, Melbourne, pop., 734,000. Area, 87,884 sq. miles. Revenue, £19,287,000. Expenditure, £19,247,000. Chief occupation, grazing and agriculture (manufacturing industries rapidly developing). Imports: textiles, iron and steel, etc., value £47,069,000. Exports: wool, gold, grain, dairy produce, fruit, wines, value £33,806,000. Public debt: £10,909,000.

**Western Australia.** Form of Government: State of the Commonwealth. Governor, Sir F. Newdigate-Newdegate, K.C.M.G. Pop., 335,000. Capital, Perth, pop., 142,000. Area, 975,920 sq. miles. Revenue, £6,907,000. Expenditure, £7,639,000. Chief occupation, sheep farming and gold mining. Imports: textiles, machinery, etc., value £6,500,000. Exports: gold, wool, wheat, fruit, timber, etc., value £6,670,000. Public debt: £54,960,000.

**Northern Territories.** Form of Government: Administered by the Commonwealth Government. Resident Administrator, F. C. Urquhart. Pop., 3,870. Capital, Port Darwin. Area, 523,000 sq. miles. Chief occupation, stock farming and mining. Imports: textiles and manufactured goods, value £12,502. Exports: meat, tallow, pearl-shell, beche-de-mer,

etc., value £14,846.

**Papua.** (British New Guinea). Form of Government: a territory of the Commonwealth of Australia. Lieut.-Gov., H. P. Murray, C.M.G. Pop., 200,000. Area (including neighbouring islands), 90,500 sq. miles. Revenue (local), £68,138. Expenditure, £125,000. Chief occupation, mining and rubber growing. Imports: cotton goods, hardware and manufactured goods, value £484,770. Exports: gold, rubber, pearl and pearl-shell, value £173,000. The vast interior of New Guinea is undeveloped, and little is definitely known of its resources, though there are indications that these are very important and valuable.

**New Guinea** (late German New Guinea). Transferred to Commonwealth. The area administered includes the Bismarck Archipelago, New Britain, New Ireland, and Solomon Islands.

## New Zealand.

Form of Government: A Dominion. Governor-General and Commander-in-Chief, Viscount Jellicoe, O.M., G.C.B. Pop. (excl. Maoris), 1,218,270. Capital, Wellington, pop., 107,428. Area, 103,861 sq. miles. Revenue, £28,128,000. Expenditure, £28,467,000. Chief occupation, grazing. Imports: chiefly manufactured goods, woollens, etc., value £42,942,000 (from U.K. £21,449,000). Exports: wool, mutton, grain, dairy produce, etc., value £44,829,000 (to U.K. £38,717,000). Public debt: £219,054,000.

## North America.

**BERMUDA.** Form of Government: Representative. Governor, Gen. Sir J. Willcocks, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O. Pop., 21,869. Capital, Hamilton, pop., 2,627. Area, 19 sq. miles. Revenue, £201,000. Expenditure, £237,000. Imports: manufactured goods, value £1,340,000 (from U.K. £351,000). Exports: vegetables, etc., value £225,000. Public debt: £85,000.

**CANADA.** A Dominion composed of the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba Alberta,

Saskatchewan, British Columbia, North-West Territories, Yukon. Each province has a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the Governor-General, and a single chamber Legislative Assembly (except Quebec and Nova Scotia, which have, in addition, a Legislative Council). The Central Legislature consists of a Senate (nominated for life by the Governor-General) and a House of Commons on the English model. Governor-General, Lord Byng of Vimy. Pop., 8,800,000. Capital, Ottawa, pop., 107,000. Area, 3,729,700 sq. miles. Revenue, £78,500,000. Expenditure, £71,400,000. Chief occupation, agriculture. Imports: iron and steel goods, railway rolling stock, etc., value \$864,059,000 (from U.K. \$149,623,000). Exports: wheat, fish, furs, dairy produce, fruit, etc., value \$980,835,000 (to U.K. \$386,622,000). Public debt: \$2,409,000,000.

**Ontario.** Form of Government: Province. Lt.-Governor, Col. H. Cockshutt. Pop., 2,523,724. Capital, Ottawa, pop., 107,000. Area, 407,262 sq. miles. Revenue, \$29,261,000. Expenditure, \$28,580,000. Chief industries: farming, forestry, mining and fishing; there is a great movement to develop local manufactures. Exports: wheat, fruit, lumber, gold, silver, nickel, dairy produce.

**Quebec.** Form of Government: Province. Lt.-Governor, Sir C. Fitzpatrick. Pop., 2,500,000. Capital, Quebec, pop., 120,000. Area, 703,650 sq. miles. Revenue, \$15,842,000. Expenditure, \$14,684,000. Chief occupation, lumber trade. Exports: lumber, fruit, cereals, dairy produce, etc. Public debt: \$52,285,000.

**New Brunswick.** Form of Government: Province. Lt.-Governor, W. F. Todd. Capital, Fredericton (but largest town is St. John's, pop., 46,500). Area, 28,000 sq. miles. Revenue, \$2,893,000. Expenditure, \$3,433,000. Chief occupation, fisheries, mining, agriculture. Exports: wheat, dairy produce, fish, etc. Public debt: \$23,573,000.

**Nova Scotia.** Form of Government: Province. Lt.-Governor, McC. Grant. Pop., 493,000. Capital, Halifax, pop., 70,000. Area, 21,428 sq. miles. Revenue, \$4,587,000. Expenditure, \$4,654,000. Chief occupation, agriculture, coal mining and fisheries. Exports: agricultural produce, coal, fish, fruit. Public debt: \$22,606,000.

**Prince Edward Island.** Form of Government: Province. Lt.-Governor, Hon. Murdock McKinnon. Pop., 94,000. Capital, Charlottetown, pop., 12,000. Area, 2,184 sq. miles. Revenue, \$727,000. Expenditure, \$715,000. Chief occupation, agriculture. Exports: agricultural and dairy produce, fish, fox-skins, etc.

**Manitoba.** Form of Government: Province. Lt.-Governor, Sir J. A. M. Aitkins, K.C. Pop., 620,000. Capital, Winnipeg, pop., 186,000. Area, 251,800 sq. miles. Revenue, \$9,801,000. Expenditure, \$10,402,000. Chief occupation, agriculture. Exports: wheat, dairy produce, etc.

**Alberta.** Form of Government: Province. Lt.-Governor, R. G. Brett. Pop., 500,000. Capital, Edmonton, pop., 25,000. Area 253,000 sq. miles. Revenue, \$17,086,000. Expenditure, \$13,110,000. Exports: wheat, timber, coal, dairy produce. Public debt: \$59,000,000.

**Saskatchewan.** Form of Government: Province. Lt.-Governor, H. W. Newlands, K.C., Pop., 648,000. Capital, Regina, pop., 26,105. Area, 251,700 sq. miles. Revenue, \$11,790,000. Expenditure, \$12,088,000. Chief occupation, wheat growing. Exports: cereals and agricultural produce.

**British Columbia.** Form of Government: Province. Lt.-Gov. W. C. Nichol. Pop., 700,000. Capital, Victoria, pop., 60,000. Area, 420,000 sq. miles. Revenue, \$15,219,000. Expenditure, \$15,237,000. Exports: timber, fish, agricultural produce, fruit, etc.

**North West Territories.** Form of Government: Under a Com-

missioner and Council of not more than four members, appointed by the Governor-General. Commissioner, W. W. Cory, C.M.G. Pop., 18,500. Area, 1,242,224 sq. miles. Chief occupation, agriculture.

**Yukon.** Form of Government: Under a Gold Commissioner appointed by the Governor-General. Gold Commissioner, G. P. Mackenzie. Pop., 8,512. Capital, Dawson City, pop., 3,000. Area, 207,076 sq. miles. Revenue, \$152,000. Expenditure, \$150,000. Chief occupation, placer gold digging.

**NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR.** Form of Government: A Dominion. Governor, Sir W. L. Allardyce, K.C.M.G. Pop., 243,000. Capital, St. John's, pop., 32,000. Area, Newfoundland, 42,000 sq. miles, Labrador, 120,000 sq. miles. Revenue £1,734,000. Expenditure, £2,251,000. Chief occupation, fishing and lumbering (paper mills). Imports: textiles, hardware, etc., value £3,743,000. Exports: fish, paper pulp, etc., value £4,004,000 (to Public debt: £8,846,000).

## West Indies, etc.

**BAHAMAS.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Sir H. E. S. Cordeaux. Pop., 60,000. Capital, Nassau. Area, 4,404 sq. miles. Revenue, £471,000. Expenditure, £267,000. Imports: chiefly manufactured goods, value £1,096,000 (from U.K. £409,000). Exports: sponges, sisal, fibre, pine-apples, etc., value £378,000 (to U.K. £35,000). Public debt: £27,325.

**BARBADOS.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Sir C. R. M. O'Brien, K.C.M.G. Pop., 200,000. Capital, Bridgetown, pop., 16,600. Area, 166 sq. miles. Revenue, £341,000. Expenditure, £409,000. Chief occupation, sugar production. Imports: cotton goods, hardware, manufactured goods generally, value £2,642,000 (from U.K. £947,000). Exports: sugar, cotton, ginger, etc., value £1,468,000 (to U.K. £106,000). Public debt: £561,500.

**BRITISH GUIANA.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Sir Graeme Thompson. Pop., 311,000. Capital, Georgetown, pop., 54,000.

Area, 89,500 sq. miles. Revenue, £969,000. Expenditure, £1,196,000. Chief occupation, sugar and rum production. Imports: manufactured goods, machinery, etc., value £3,273,000. (from U.K. £1,528,000). Exports: sugar, rice, gold, balata, etc., value £2,727,000. Public debt: £1,170,000.

**BRITISH HONDURAS.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Sir E. Hutson, K.C.M.G., Pop., 43,000. Capital, Belize, pop., 10,000. Area, 8,600 sq. miles. Revenue, £227,000. Expenditure, £290,000. Chief occupation, wood cutting. Imports: cotton goods, hardware, etc., value £688,000. Exports: timber (including dye-woods), gums, sponges, tortoiseshell, etc., value £627,000. Public debt: £136,900.

**JAMAICA.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Sir L. Probyn, K.C.M.G. Pop., 893,000. Capital, Kingston, pop., 57,000. Area, 4,450 sq. miles. Revenue, £1,921,000. Expenditure, £2,247,000. Imports: hardware, clothing, building material, etc., value, £5,474,000 (from U.K. £1,601,000). Exports: fruit, sugar, coffee, rum, etc., value £3,358,000 (to U.K. £995,000). Public debt: £4,063,000.

**LEEWARD ISLANDS** (including Antigua, St. Kitts-Nevis, Dominica, Montserrat, The Virgin Islands, and smaller groups.) Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Hon. Sir E. Fiennes, Bart. Pop., 127,000. Capital, St. John, Antigua, pop., 8,000. Total area, 704 sq. miles. Revenue, £304,000. Expenditure, £275,000. Imports: manufactured goods, value £1,560,000. Exports: cotton, limes, onions, sugar, cocoa, fruit, etc., value £1,900,000. Public debt: £217,000.

**TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor, Sir S. H. Wilson, Pop., 377,000. Capital, Port of Spain, pop., 66,000. Area, Trinidad, 1,862 sq. miles., Tobago, 114 sq. miles. Revenue, £1,868,000. Expenditure, £2,075,000. Imports: manufactured goods, value £6,904,000 (from U.K. £1,727,000). Exports: sugar, cocoanuts, copra, molasses, rum, petroleum, etc., value £4,684,000 (to U.K. £1,899,000). Public debt: £3,206,000.

**TURKS AND CAICOS ISLANDS.**

Form of Government: Dependency under the Government of Jamaica. Commissioner, H. E. Phillips. Pop., 5,600. Revenue, £9,445. Expenditure, £9,249. Imports: foodstuffs, value £56,000. Exports: salts, sponges, etc., value, £36,000.

**WINDWARD ISLANDS** (including St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada, and the Grenadines). Form of Government: Crown Colony. Each island retains its own institutions, and there is no common legislature, laws, revenue, or tariff; there being, however, a common Court of Appeal. Governor, Sir G. B. Haddon-Smith, K.C.M.G. Pop., 177,000. Total area, 524 sq. miles. Chief occupation, planting. Revenue, Grenada £98,000, St. Lucia £74,000, St. Vincent £54,000. Expenditure, Grenada £137,000, St. Lucia £103,000, St. Vincent £56,000. Imports: manufactured goods, value, Grenada, £259,000 (from U.K. £70,000); St. Lucia, £218,000 (from U.K. £66,000); St. Vincent, £145,000 (from U.K. £59,000). Exports: sugar, limes, spices, turtles, etc., value, Grenada, £251,000 (to U.K. £161,000); St. Lucia, £229,000 (to U.K. £65,000); St. Vincent, £131,000 (to U.K. £85,000). Public debt: Grenada, £224,000; St. Lucia, £156,000; St. Vincent, £12,000.

**Miscellaneous.**

**FALKLAND ISLANDS.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor and Commander-in-Chief, John Middleton, C.M.G. Pop., 3,250. Only town, Stanley, pop., 950. Area, 6,500 sq. miles, exclusive of S. Georgia. Revenue, £139,000. Expenditure, £50,000. Chief occupation, sheep farming and whaling. Imports: manufactured goods, etc., value £438,000 (from U.K. £256,000). Exports: wool and whale products, value £1,734,000 (to U.K. £1,681,000). Public debt: nil.

**FIJI.** Form of Government: Crown Colony. Governor and Commander-in-Chief, Sir C. H. Rodwell (see also the Pacific Islands). Pop., 155,000. Total area, 7,083 sq. miles. Capital, Suva (on Viti Levu), pop., 5,000. Revenue, £570,000. Expenditure, £752,000. Chief occupation, sugar and coconut cultivation. Imports: manufactured goods, value £1,510,000 (from U.K. £368,000). Exports: sugar, copra, fruit, rubber, etc., value £2,458,000 (to U.K. £164,000).

**PACIFIC ISLANDS.** Form of Government: Western Pacific High Commission. High Commissioner, Sir C. H. Rodwell (Governor of Fiji). Chief products, copra, rubber, fruit, phosphates. The High Commission includes the following principal groups: Tongan or Friendly Islands, Ellice and Gilbert Islands, Ocean Island, British Solomon Islands, New Hebrides.

**TRISTAN DA CUNHA.** Form of Government: No regular system. A small island in the South Atlantic.

**MANDATES.** Togo, and the Cameroons, in West Africa, shared with France; ex-German East-Africa, shared with Belgium, the British sphere being called Tanganyika Territory; ex-German S.W. Africa, held by the Union of South Africa; ex-German islands in the Pacific, and New Guinea, held by Australia; Samoa, administered by New Zealand; Nauru, jointly administered by Imperial Government, Australia and New Zealand; Palestine (High Commissioner, Sir Herbert Samuel); and Mesopotamia, now the Kingdom of Iraq under King Feisal (High Commissioner, Sir H. R. C. Dobbs.) A 21-year treaty between Great Britain and Iraq was signed 10th October, 1922, providing that in all important matters affecting international and financial obligations and interests of the British Government, the King agrees to be guided by the advice of the British High Commissioner.

# Foreign Politics

By J. ELLIS BARKER.

THE year 1923, like its predecessor, was principally a year of liquidation. Every great war is followed by a prolonged period of political and economic difficulties. It is only natural that the readjustment following the greatest of all wars should take a good many years. The Treaty of Versailles was concluded with difficulty. Endless delays were caused by the differences among the Powers. Germany could not take advantage of these differences as Talleyrand did in 1814-1815, because she was excluded from the negotiations. As her leaders could not play the part of a Bismarck, they endeavoured after the war to play that of the great French statesman who succeeded in setting the Powers against each other to the advantage of France.

Towards the end of 1922 the tension caused by the reparation problem was obviously coming to a head. France became impatient of Germany's non-fulfilment and procrastination and demanded strong measures. In order to avoid French intervention and to preserve the union of the Allies, inter-allied conferences were held in December, 1922, in London, and early in January, 1923, in Paris. At the conference in London on the 9th December, 1923, Monsieur Poincaré complained in the presence of Mr. Bonar Law, M. Theunis, and Signor Mussolini:—

“Already in August the French Government had the impression that Germany was systematically endeavouring to ruin herself, and preparing to go into a more or less fraudulent bankruptcy by making unlimited issues of paper money. Consequently he had demanded some definite form of control under the Reparation Commission, control over the issues of the Reichsbank, control over the budget, control over the German exports and their foreign values. The Reparation Commission, however, had not been able to obtain satisfaction. The French Government had then said they could not agree to a moratorium unless their Allies would consent to a certain number of guarantees, including participation in certain industries, the establishment of customs lines, control over the State mines and forests. On some points the French representatives had been able to agree with Italy: on others with Great Britain, and on the most important point with Belgium. In general, however, agreement had not been reached and the conference had failed, especially on the question of guarantees.”

At the same sitting the French Prime Minister protested that the French nation had no idea of annexing any portion of Germany, but that France did not wish to be ruined by Germany's recalcitrancy. As the London conferences proved unsuccessful, further



meetings were arranged for, which took place in Paris on the 2nd, 3rd and 4th January, 1923. France felt unable to accept the English proposals for reparation settlement. M. Poincaré stated on the 3rd January, 1923 :—

“ The British plan began by granting a moratorium of four years to Germany, during which no pledge or guarantee was taken. . . . For four years Germany was to pay nothing in cash and almost nothing in kind. . . . If Germany was left for four years under this régime, there was no Power in the world which would be able to make her pay. They could only make her pay by going to war. . . . The British programme was tantamount to a restoration in a short time of German hegemony in Europe and in the world. Everyone knew that at the present time Germany had no external debt. Compared with many nations, and especially with France, Germany found herself in a privileged position in this respect. On the other hand, Germany had brought about, or permitted, the collapse of her national currency, Great Britain appeared to regard the German Government as not responsible for this situation. France held the contrary view. Germany had reduced her internal debt to no more than a few milliards of gold marks, and at the next collapse of the mark, it would be reduced to nothing at all, so that in a short time Germany would have no internal or external debts. Of course she had her reparations debt, which had been fixed by the Reparations Commission with the Schedule of Payments at 132 milliards of gold marks. Under the British scheme, however, owing to the play of the system of bonds and discounts and the other methods provided, the German debt could be reduced to 20 milliards, a debt which could be amortised in a period of fifteen years. At the end of fifteen years, having amortised the reparation debt, Germany would be the only country with no external debt. In addition, the German population was increasing ; her industry was intact, she had no factories to reconstruct, she had no flooded mines. Thus in fifteen or twenty years' time, Germany would be mistress of Europe. In front of her would be France with a population scarcely increased, since, in the intervening years, France would have to suffer very heavily under the weight of the losses sustained. France would have to support the burden of the reconstruction of the devastated regions. That was the situation of France, the Ally of England. Was this good for Great Britain ? Great Britain was suffering from unemployment and she only wished she was not. Was the best way to get rid of unemployment to encourage Germany to prepare a German industrial hegemony ? ”

The representatives of Belgium and Italy joined France in

opposing the British proposals, and M. Poincaré, in closing the last sitting, stated on behalf of the French Government :—

“The Government of the Republic have examined very attentively and carefully the British proposals, and the longer they have studied them the more have they felt obliged to recognise that the proposals would involve, together with a considerable reduction of the debt owing to France, the overthrow of the Treaty of Versailles, and that it is impossible for them to accept such a solution. The Government of the Republic deeply regret their inability to agree with the British Government on those serious questions, but they thank the British Government for their friendly statements and can assure them that, in spite of this difference of opinion, the sentiments of the Government of the Republic and of the French nation towards England remain unchangingly cordial.”

In a Note communicated by the French Ambassador to the Foreign Office on the 7th January, the difference between the British and the French points of view was summarised as follows :—

“ . . . The British plan considers Germany as having been the victim of circumstances over which she had no control, circumstances which prevented her from carrying out the Treaty. The French Government, on the contrary, apart from the voluntary defaults which it has noted for the greater part of the deliveries in kind, considers that the German Government has put itself deliberately into its present situation from which it derives argument for refusing to execute the clauses of the Treaty. . . . England considers that a prolonged respite granted to Germany, combined with a considerable reduction of her debt, is the only means of creating in Germany both a willingness to pay and a possibility of paying. The French Government considers, on the contrary, that the German capacity to pay is in a very large measure dependent on the will of the Government and of the industrial groups which at the present time hold effective authority in Germany. It considers that the will of the one is at the present time without effective force, and that the will of the other is clearly hostile to the policy of reparation. A new manifestation of Allied weakness, weariness or indulgence could only reinforce a negative attitude, of which the concessions obtained from the Allies would seem to be the reward.”

For a very long time leading Frenchmen have regarded it as obvious that Germany was determined not to pay reparations, that the difficulty was to be found not in her incapacity but in ill-will, that the only way of causing her to pay consisted in seizing the indispensable Ruhr Valley, which should be held as security. Mr. Lloyd George had opposed France's desire to march into the Ruhr. Mr. Bonar Law, while not liking France's aim, did not

wish to oppose her, although he thought that that step might prove disappointing. On the 11th January the French forces entered Essen. The workers went on strike, and Mr. Hughes, the American Secretary of State, after a conference with President Harding, announced that it had been decided to withdraw the American troops from the Rhine at once. Thus the Ruhr trouble began.

It has been characteristic of the post-war period that the world is distracted by a number of problems and crises which occur simultaneously. Late in 1922, representatives of the Powers had met at Lausanne with a view to settling the difficult and dangerous Turkish problem. The hope that a settlement with Turkey might be reached before the arrival of 1923 proved vain. The Turkish question continued to distract the Foreign Offices for a great many months in 1923. In addition to the Reparations problem and the Turkish difficulty, there was the problem of the British debt contracted in the United States. Mr. Stanley Baldwin, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Mr. Norman, the Governor of the Bank of England, arrived in New York on the 4th January. To the great satisfaction of most people, Mr. Baldwin arranged for the payment of the debt of \$4,600,000,000 by means of sixty-two yearly payments which, in the aggregate, will amount to the gigantic sum of \$11,105,965,000 unless England succeeds in paying principal and interest more rapidly, or unless the United States should waive voluntarily part of that vast sum.

On the 11th January King Constantine of Greece died at Palermo. He had seen his dreams of a Greater Greece come to nought, and it was said that he had died of a broken heart.

In January the Memel difficulty came to a head. The Lithuanians invaded Memel, apparently with a view to finding compensation for the Polish occupation of Vilna, and the allied ambassadors had to take steps at Kovno to cause the Lithuanians to withdraw.

The French had intended to send a number of engineers and other experts to the Ruhr and to work the coal mines, &c., with a view to recouping themselves and to obtain the coal, cash, &c., which the German Government refused to provide on account of reparations. They were accompanied by troops for their protection. However, a well-thought-out and well-organised policy of sabotage was pursued by the Germans. Railways and coal mines stopped working, the French and Belgians were boycotted, insulted and attacked, individuals were murdered, collisions occurred, bombs and mines exploded, telegraphs, bridges, permanent way and canals were seriously damaged or destroyed, &c. Hence the French found it necessary to increase the number of troops and to take stern measures against the inhabitants. Recalcitrant government officials, railway workers and others were expelled, fined or imprisoned, towns in which attacks on troops and acts

of sabotage had taken place were punished, and, curiously enough, the numerous acts of sabotage which were organised and paid for by the Government were officially described as passive resistance. Well-meaning people tried to mediate between France and Germany. Apparently Signor Mussolini sounded Berlin and Paris with this object in view. However, nothing could be done to settle matters because both sides were equally determined not to give way. Both Powers thought that the other side would be worn down in due course by sheer weariness. The German Government lavishly aided the strikers in the Ruhr by paying them wages while on strike, while sufferers through their resistance to the French were amply compensated. Vast amounts of money were provided by means of the printing press, and the enormous issues of paper money naturally drove down the value of the mark to practically nothing. With the continuation of resistance, the French and Belgians increased the severity of their counter measures. An ex-officer of the name of Schlageter, who was responsible for a number of dynamite crimes, was executed. He was treated as a hero by the Germans. His body was buried with the greatest pomp, and large amounts were collected for a national monument to him. Other criminals were condemned to death but not executed. Among those who received lengthy terms of imprisonment were Herr Krupp von Bohlen and some of his co-directors, who were held responsible for a riot at the Krupp works which endangered the lives of a few French soldiers. When fines imposed upon towns were not paid, the French troops of occupation seized money in public offices and at the branches of the Reichsbank.

At the beginning of February it seemed as if the Lausanne Conference would end in a complete failure. After having been in session continuously during two months and a half, it broke up on the 1st February because of the refusal of the Angora Turks to accept the draft treaty which the Allied Powers had formally presented on the 31st January. The Turkish delegates remained obdurate, notwithstanding the recommendations to accept on the part of American and other disinterested diplomats. Lord Curzon returned to London and stated on the 6th February :—

It was in vain that for an hour and a half my colleagues and I exhausted every resource of argument and persuasion. I described the Turkish attitude as unbelievable. M. Bompard, with greater eloquence, denounced it as crime. The Marquis di Garroni echoed these appeals. But the Turks remained immovable, and as the minutes slipped away and the train, the departure of which had already been delayed for thirty minutes, could not longer wait, it was clear that for the barren satisfaction of sustaining a position which had long ago been sapped and destroyed, or on the offchance of squeezing some further surrender from the Allies, they were prepared to forego

the chances of settlement and to exhibit themselves as the real wreckers of the peace for which all yearned. When, in these circumstances, I steamed out of Lausanne Station on Sunday night in the presence of every delegation except that of the Turks, I felt a terrible, but momentary, depression ; for I was convinced that as soon as they realised what they had done, the Turks themselves would be the first to recognise the extent of their error and the weight of the responsibility which they had deliberately elected to assume, and that before twelve hours had passed the reaction would assume definite proportions."

The Turks, were indeed, desirous to continue negotiating. They wished to pursue their traditional policy of wearing out their diplomatic opponents by endless procrastination and objection, and by playing one Power against the other. Very soon meetings were resumed which were to continue for weary months.

In view of the uncertainty of the outlook, the threatening attitude of Russia, and the possibility of an attempt on the part of the defeated Powers to tear up the Peace Treaties and to destroy the territorial post-war settlement, counter measures were taken. After all, the spirit of reaction was rising everywhere. The newly created nations strengthened their position by defensive alliances, and France wished to strengthen Poland, for Poland, by separating Germany from Russia and preventing a union of these two Powers which would make Germany all-powerful in the world, was particularly important to France. Thus Poland became France's protégé and received from France military advice, guidance, arms and money. On the 15th February the French Chamber of Deputies passed a Bill providing for a loan of 400,000,000 francs to Poland.

Mr. Woodrow Wilson, as President of the United States, had been disastrously defeated, largely because he championed the League of Nations, and he had been replaced by President Harding, who was supposed to be a reliable champion of American isolation. However, on the 24th February President Harding addressed a message to the Senate in which he urged the United States to join the Court of International Justice of the League of Nations. Together with his message, Mr. Harding submitted a letter from Mr. Hughes, the Secretary of State, who took exception to the President's course, for he wrote:—"I beg to recommend. . . that such adhesion shall not be taken to involve any legal relation on the part of the United States to the League of Nations or the assumption of any obligations by the United States under the Covenant of the League of Nations constituting Part I. of the Treaty of Versailles." President Harding remained faithful to his idea which he continued to urge during the rest of his life. He died suddenly in August, after a visit to Alaska and Canada,



and his last address, published after his death, contained a recommendation that the United States should join the Court of International Justice. The American Senate was as hostile to the proposals of President Harding as it had been to those of President Wilson. The recommendation that the United States should join the Court of International Justice was negatived by 49 votes against 24 as long before as the 2nd March.

Herr Cuno, the Chancellor of the German Reich, was determined upon unconditional resistance to France. On the 6th March he stated in the Reichstag:—

“ I assumed office, determined as an honest merchant to fix the sum of our obligations through frank negotiations. Our far-reaching proposals were not even examined in Paris because the occupation of the Ruhr had already been decided on. Agreement failed because, although Germany was willing to negotiate, France was unwilling. Therefore we proclaim: ‘ Away with talk about negotiations.’ It is not Germany’s business to make any offers as long as the occupation of the Ruhr prevents us ascertaining our capacity to pay. As soon as we are able to talk to France as an equal, we shall negotiate with France, but this Government will not sign any agreement which it cannot keep. We do not agree to any settlement which illegally severs the occupied territory from Germany, nor any agreement which fails to restore to freedom those Germans who have been wrongfully punished.”

The attitude of Herr Cuno made negotiations impossible, and prevented well-meaning foreign intermediaries from bridging the differences between France and Germany. Unfortunately the Cuno Government pursued a purely negative policy, not only in foreign affairs, but in domestic affairs as well. It refused to increase taxation adequately. Owing to the depreciation of the mark, most taxes could be collected only at a loss and the total yield of taxation came, in English money, only to about £60,000,000 a year. All the national services were run at a tremendous loss. The principal cost of carrying on the administration and of financing the resistance of the people in the Ruhr was borne by setting the printing press working at an ever faster rate, with disastrous results to the German currency.

Austria had been a claimant for assistance for a very long time. After lengthy negotiations, the Council of the League of Nations agreed on the 22nd April to finance Austria by means of an international loan, which was successfully floated. While other countries were in difficulties, Austria showed distinct signs of recovery, largely because she had agreed that her finances should be placed under international control. The Austrians themselves would never have been able to carry through the very unpopular policy of dismissing tens of thousands of useless officials

and abolishing the abuse of subsidies, doles, and Government interference in economic affairs.

On the 20th April Lord Curzon made a speech in the House of Lords in which he recommended to Germany to make adequate proposals for carrying out reparations and to abandon her purely negative attitude. Apparently in consequence of his suggestion, the German Government addressed a Note to the Allied Powers and to the United States on the 2nd May. It demanded the creation of "an Impartial International Commission," proposed that "the sum total of Germany's obligations in cash and in kind is to be fixed at 30,000,000,000 gold marks," suggested that if the German proposals should not be accepted by France, "in case this view should not be shared by the other side, the German Government proposes, in accordance with the suggestion of the American Secretary of State, Mr. Hughes, to leave the whole reparation problem to the decision of an international commission, free from every political influence," and offered the following guarantees:—

"The German Government is prepared to provide special guarantees for the payments offered. The entire possessions and all the sources of revenue of the Reich, as well as of the German Federal States, are, in accordance with the Treaty of Versailles, already generally pledged. Therefore, only by way of negotiation with an international loan syndicate and the Reparation Commission will it be possible to determine in what way, for the purposes of the loan service, a concrete form can be given to these securities and what guarantees are to be provided in each particular case.

"The German Government is also prepared, in accordance with the terms of the agreements to be made, to take, if necessary, all proper legislative measures in order to obtain the co-operation of the entire German business world in furnishing securities of a satisfactory nature.

"The payments in kind are to be guaranteed by long-term private contracts, providing fines for their breach."

The proposal was probably not intended seriously, but was meant to demonstrate Germany's goodwill and was intended to be refused with a view to putting France in the wrong. The sum total offered was quite insufficient. The money was to be raised not by Germany but by other nations on Germany's behalf. The German offer was promptly declined by France and Belgium because it was unacceptable on account both of the insufficiency of the sum mentioned and of the absence of adequate guarantees of payment. The reply of these two Powers stated:—

"The Treaty of Versailles fixed the condition under which the German debt would be calculated and paid. The calculation took place at the end of April, 1921. The means of

payment were decided upon May 5th, 1921. Germany formally accepted at that time the fixing of the sum and the means of payment. Since then she has not kept the engagements she took. A partial moratorium was accorded her. She did not even discharge her reduced obligations. The Reparations Commission declared the successive defaults of which Germany had been guilty. It was following this declaration and in the execution of the Treaty that Belgium and France seized the guarantees. Contrary to the allegation of the German Government, this seizure of guarantees was carried out without the slightest violence on the part of Belgium and France, and if it had been an affair of only these two powers, co-operation would have been immediately established in the Ruhr between the industrial chiefs, engineers and workers of Germany and the industrial chiefs, engineers and workers of the Allies. It was orders sent from Berlin which alone prevented this co-operation.

"The German Government states that the population responded to the occupation of the Ruhr by passive resistance. Nothing is further from the truth. It was not the population. It was the German Government which desired and organised this resistance. Furthermore, the German Government recognises this implicitly, since it declares to-day that this resistance will cease only after a settlement on the lines of its present proposals. If the resistance was spontaneous, how could the German Government either stop it or prolong it? This resistance, moreover, is not only passive but active, whereas the Treaty of Versailles formally stipulates that Germany has not the right to consider as an act of hostility any sanction taken after the declaration of default by the Reparations Commission.

"The German Government has provoked not only strikes of officials, but a general and systematic policy of aggression, of sabotage, and of violations of the common law. The Belgian and French Governments cannot take into consideration any German proposal so long as this resistance is kept up. They do not intend that the lives of their officers, their soldiers, their engineers, their customs officials, or their railroad workers shall be exposed to attack while the pending issues are being examined. Neither do they intend that the normal operation of the military control commissions shall remain blocked, and that the disarmament of Germany shall be put in doubt by the fact that France and Belgium, unpaid, have seized the guarantees to which they are entitled. . . . The Belgian Government and the French Government have decided that they will withdraw from the occupied territories only in proportion to the payments made. They find nothing to change in this resolution. They cannot, besides, help remarking

that the German Note from one end to the other is only a thinly veiled expression of systematic revolt against the Treaty of Versailles. If it could be taken into consideration, it would lead surely to the total and definite destruction of this Treaty, to the necessity of negotiating another, and to the moral, economic, political and military revenge of Germany. . . ."

While these more important problems were being discussed by the various Governments, a minor difficulty arose between the European Powers and the United States owing to the rigorous application of the Volstead law to foreign shipping within the three mile zone.\* On the 30th April the Supreme Court of the United States had decided that the Prohibition Enforcement Law applied to all shipping, that neither American nor foreign ships could bring intoxicating beverages inside the territorial waters of the United States as ship stores, or in bond, or sealed. England and various other Powers protested, and the shipping companies tested the legality of this decision and the question whether the American Government would act upon it or not.

For some considerable time relations between England and Russia became more and more strained. The Russian authorities considered England of no account, and disregarding her rights and the solemn agreements made, ill-treated and imprisoned British citizens, seized British ships on the high seas, and indulged in anti-British propaganda, especially in Persia, Afghanistan and India. At last, on the 8th May, the British Government sent virtually an ultimatum to the Russian authorities which called for a reply within ten days. On the 12th May the Soviet authorities sent a lengthy reply denying England's accusations, demanding that Russia should be treated by England as an equal, and suggesting an Anglo-Russian Conference which was "to regulate once and for all and to the fullest extent the relations between the Soviet Government and Great Britain." In many ways Russia changed her proceedings. However, friction between the two countries remained, the fundamental differences between the two being too great for easy adjustment.

Franco-German differences continued practically to monopolise the public attention of Europe. In a Note dated the 7th June, Germany supplemented the inadequate reparation offer made on the 2nd May. The new Note suggested once more "an impartial enquiry, the verdict of which would be accepted by the German Government," and contained the following particulars:—

"As a guarantee for the annuities, the German Government pledges the Federal railway system, which would be capitalised at 10,000,000,000 marks, yielding an annual bonded interest of 500,000,000 marks. A further 10,000,000,000

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[\*See an important resolution on this subject passed by the Imperial Conference.—EDITORS, B.D.Y.B.]

marks would be guaranteed by a gold 5 per cent. mortgage, security for which would be furnished in physical holdings of industry, agriculture and shipping, and the gold obligations assumed by banking and commercial interests and private real estate. This levy, it is estimated, would also yield 500,000,000 gold marks. The additional 200,000,000 of the annuity total would be raised by increased Customs duties on articles of luxury and the creation of the Government monopoly in tobacco and spirits."

France found the German offer unacceptable and the Note unsatisfactory for the following reasons:—

"First:—Because it makes no mention of abandoning passive resistance, which is the first of the Franco-Belgian conditions.

"Second:—Germany offers no definite sum as the total reparations.

"Third:—In suggesting an impartial international commission to fix the reparations total, Germany ignores and seeks to violate the Versailles Treaty, which created the Reparations Commission for exactly that purpose. The French see no reason why the Reparations Commission should be supplanted.

"Fourth:—The suggestions for guarantees might be open to discussion if Germany proposed their administration by the Allies, but if the Germans administer the guarantees the French would expect no satisfactory result."

In June the Pope tried his hand at intervention. He wrote a letter to Cardinal Gasparri, his Secretary of State, saying that since the beginning of his Pontificate international relations had become worse, causing grave anxiety for the future.

For a long time France had refused to ratify the Five-Power Naval Limitation Treaty and the Four-Power Pacific Treaty, which had been drafted at Washington in 1922. On the 11th July the French Senate ratified the Naval Treaty without reservations by 287 votes to 3 votes, while the Pacific Treaty was agreed upon unanimously to the great satisfaction of all friends of international peace. The movement which aims at replacing international violence by arbitration was further strengthened by an agreement signed in Washington on the 23rd June by the American Secretary of State and Sir Auckland Geddes, the British Ambassador, whereby the Anglo-American Treaty of Arbitration, which was originally concluded in 1908, was extended for a period of five years until 1928.

In July the differences between the United States and the Phillipines came to a head. In the Phillipines, as elsewhere, the natives demanded full "self-determination" in accordance with the general fashion. On the 23rd July the controversy which



had arisen between the American Governor-General, Mr. Leonard Wood, and the native leaders, resulted in the unanimous passing of a resolution at a joint meeting of the Phillippine Legislature, demanding the immediate recall of the Governor-General and the immediate grant of independence.

The Near East Conference, which had been in session at Lausanne for eight months, concluded its labours on the 24th July, when a Treaty of Peace was signed, and at the end of August the troops occupying Constantinople began the evacuation. The Turks had succeeded in their aim of wearing out the Powers. They were given more than they had ever dared to hope after their great defeat. The Sevres Treaty was torn up. The Capitulations which for so long have been the protection of racial and religious alien minorities were abandoned. Turkey has become master in her own house to an extent unknown for centuries. The *New York Evening Post* commented as follows:—

“No one need regret that the Sevres Treaty has not stood. The Turks were only too well justified in declaring that its terms, surrendering large Turkish communities to alien control, and imposing excessive restrictions upon Turkish freedom in economic and political affairs, were intolerable. What is to be regretted is that a fair peace was not quickly, emphatically, and finally imposed on Turkey by the united Allies. The wars and massacres of the last few years might have been avoided. Europe wantonly threw away the opportunity of giving stability, peace and prosperity to the Near East. We must pin our hopes for a brighter future in that part of the world to a subsidence of the excessive Turkish nationalism. Angora should understand that the policy of driving all Greeks and Armenians from her soil will prove ruinous, for these groups have furnished the backbone of her commercial and industrial system. The Government will have to learn to treat fairly those foreign interests which have given Turkey all her modern improvements, from the electric lights in Constantinople to the railways in Asia Minor. The obvious programme for Turkish statesmen to follow is now to forget political and racial fanaticism and concentrate their energies upon economic reconstruction.”

On the other hand there is the view of Lord Birkenhead, given in the *Evening Standard* of the 14th August:—“Since Majuba Hill there has been no such complete surrender of vital British interests. Never in the history of this country has a defeated enemy wrested such terms from the conqueror. Had Turkey conquered us, the Treaty of Lausanne would almost have been an imposition.”

The endless reparation controversy became more acute in August. The British Government had tried for a long time to

play the impartial mediator between France and Germany. It had admonished, in vain, the Germans to abandon so-called passive resistance and to make to the French an adequate and sufficiently secured offer. It had tried, in addition, to induce the French to restrain and restrict their aims and claims. In this direction also every effort proved unsuccessful. Unfortunately, the tone of the various Government communications aroused the susceptibilities of those to whom they were addressed, and the proposals and demands of England were considered to be unreasonable. On the 11th August Lord Curzon addressed a very long Note to France, expressing disappointment at the reception of the British proposals on the part of the French and Belgian Governments. Enclosed with that Note was a very important and interesting Memorandum on Inter-Allied debts, which summarised the position as follows:—

1. It is, in the opinion of His Majesty's Government, hopeless to deal satisfactorily with the question of inter-Allied debts until a better estimate is made of the amounts which Great Britain on the one hand, and her Allies on the other, are likely, in fact, to be able to recover from Germany for reparations.
2. His Majesty's Government adhere to the policy, which their predecessors have formally announced, of limiting Great Britain's total claim against her Allied debtors and Germany together to the amount necessary to cover the British debt to the United States Government, which, as recently funded, may be taken to be represented, on a 5 per cent. basis, by a sum of 14.2 milliards of gold marks, present value. This basis is already exceedingly favourable to the Allies, as the British debt to the United States Government cannot be redeemed on such favourable terms.
3. This offer, in effect, means that Great Britain (whose material war damages were not less than one-third of those suffered by France) is content to forego her rights to reparation under all heads, and to treat her own share of the German payments as if it were a reimbursement by her Allies of their debts to her.
4. Nay, the total amount for which she asks from the Allies and Germany together is, in fact, less than the amount of the Allied debts, being limited to the total of the British debt to the United States Government, without regard either to loans raised by Great Britain in the open American market or to the value of the American securities (estimated at £700,000,000 to £800,000,000) used to finance the Allied cause in America before the entry of the United States into the war, the loss of which, from the economic point of view, is the equivalent of the contracting of an equal amount of foreign debt.
5. Of the sum of 14.2 milliards of gold marks, Great Britain is anxious to recover as large a percentage as possible from Germany, in order to be able to offer the maximum concessions feasible in regard to inter-Allied debts. But it is not possible for her to grant such concessions in a substantive form unless and until such a reparation settlement has been arrived at as will enable her to regard her share of the German payments as an asset of real financial value. His Majesty's Government greatly fear that a persistence in the policy indicated in the French Note will make the prospects of such a settlement remote.
6. The only practical manner in which, in the opinion of His Majesty's Government, the question of inter-Allied debts can now be

approached, is for the Allies to agree, in the first instance, upon the maximum sum which they can reasonably hope to recover from Germany. When such an agreement has been arrived at, His Majesty's Government will be prepared (provided that the settlement is such as to make the German obligation a reasonably good asset) to write down, with due regard to the different circumstances of the respective debtors, the Allied debts owing to them, to an amount representing the difference between the British share of the revised German obligation and the British debt of 14.2 milliards to the United States Government, and even to consider accepting payment of the Allied debts so reduced in the form of the new German obligations on the principles laid down in the plan presented by Mr. Bonar Law at the Paris Conference in January last.

7. They cannot, however, conceal from the French Government the fact that this latter suggestion is less attractive to them than it was then, inasmuch as the deterioration in the financial prospects of Germany, resulting, as they hold, from the unwise policy pursued by the French and Belgian Governments, has made the security represented by German reparation bonds much more precarious (even if the total obligations should be reduced below the figure contemplated by His Majesty's Government seven months ago).
8. His Majesty's Government feel bound to observe in this connection that the willingness which they and their predecessors have shown to discuss with the French Government arrangements under which the burden of the French debt to Great Britain might be mitigated must not be interpreted as a waiver on their part of their rights as creditors, which are governed solely by the contracts under which the money was advanced and the securities which they hold.
9. That a French Government Treasury bill, given to the British Government for value received, is a less binding obligation than a similar bill given to a private investor is a doctrine inadmissible both in itself and more especially in view of the circumstances in which these particular loans were contracted.
10. The normal course would have been for the French Government to appeal directly to the British investor for the accommodation it required, and that procedure was, in fact, adopted for a short period at the commencement of the war. It soon became apparent, however, that the French Government would be unable to raise on its own credit amounts sufficient to meet its sterling requirements, and the British Government stepped in and gave its own securities to the lender for the amounts raised to cover French requirements as well as British. By this means the French Government were able to borrow indirectly from British lenders both on less onerous terms and to a larger amount than would have been possible if the normal procedure had been followed. The payments due on the French Treasury bills thus represent amounts which the British Treasury is in fact paying to the holders of securities issued on behalf of the French Treasury, of which the French Treasury received the proceeds.
11. There was no suggestion when the loans were made that the repayment should be dependent on recoveries from Germany. Indeed, during the greater part of the period covered by the advances, the prospects of any such recoveries were highly problematical. The bills were made subject to renewal for a limited period only after the end of the war, with the clear intention that, as soon as French credit was sufficiently re-established, they should be redeemed out of French Government loans to be raised on the London market, the redemption money being applied to the cancellation of the British securities issued on French account.

12. While His Majesty's Government have, by continuing to renew the bills beyond the period of the contract, tacitly recognised that the time has not yet arrived for giving effect to this intention, it must be clearly understood that, in the absence of a new agreement, the carrying out of it remains an obligation of the French Government which cannot honourably be repudiated, and that, in the meantime, the present practice of adding interest to capital cannot be indefinitely continued, and that a commencement of payment of at any rate a part of the interest should be made as soon as the sterling franc exchange becomes reasonably stable.

M. Poincaré sent a long reply to the Curzon Note, which was published by the press on the 23rd August. He dwelt once more on Germany's unwillingness to pay and her trickery. Referring to the British proposals, he stated that reparations should come first, and asked, with regard to England's demand that her advances to France should be paid: "Are friends to be treated worse than former enemies? . . . Does England demand payment of the inter-allied debts before reparations have been paid? Do the British Government want the German reparation debt to be wiped out because Germany's capacity to pay is temporarily reduced to zero?" Dealing with the British proposal of an expert commission which was to ascertain Germany's capacity to pay, the French Prime Minister argued:—"The British claim that an enquiry by experts would not violate the Treaty. Either such experts would be the Reparation Commission itself, and then discussion is unnecessary, or they would be substituted for the Reparation Commission, and their appointment would be contrary to the Treaty. . . . The composition of an international committee of experts, as proposed by Britain, would be a negation of the Treaty signed by Britain."

M. Poincaré countered the arguments contained in the lengthy argument previously quoted as follows:—

"The British Government, by subordinating the question of inter-Allied debts to the valuation of German capacity for payment, and by wishing to estimate this capacity at the moment when it is lowest, are driven inevitably to the conclusion that the inter-Allied debts shall be fixed at the highest figure. It is quite legitimate that the British Government should claim from Germany what they have to pay to the United States. But if they claim from us what they do not receive from Germany, we shall naturally be obliged to maintain as far as necessary the right to recover from Germany within the limit of our admitted rights. . . . The total which France claims from Germany is much smaller than the expenditure which she is compelled to make to restore her devastated regions, quite apart from that which she would have the right to demand on the score of pensions. We for our part gravely fear that the policy set forth in the British Note does not take account of the abnormal economic situation

of France, and that it tends to impose on her a burden which she cannot carry. The British Cabinet would definitely entrust the settlement of inter-Allied debts to an international examination conducted by irresponsible financiers and to the constitution of a Commission in which France and Belgium will find themselves in a minority. . . . We have never questioned England's claim. We have merely said, and repeat, that our debt, contracted as it was in exceptional circumstances and with a common object in view, could not be compared from the point of view of morality and justice with the German debt for reparations. France has never repudiated her debts, nor will she do so, but she is convinced no British Government will ever bring to bear on an Allied country the pressure which the London Cabinet does not think it possible to bring to bear to-day on the ex-enemies of France and England. We can, therefore, only repeat that we shall only be able to repay our debt to England, or even to pay interest thereon, when payments from Germany shall have placed us in a position to complete the reparation of damages caused to our country by invasion and the shock of war."

The Reparation controversy between England and France was checked by two events. On the 12th August Herr Cuno, the German Chancellor, resigned in view of the impossibility of continuing the policy of so-called passive resistance which he had pursued. Under that policy, Germany's finances had fallen into complete chaos, commerce and industry began to suffer very seriously, and the distrust in the German currency became so great that agriculturists refused to sell their produce against marks, the value of which was rapidly vanishing. The continuation of resistance to France, financed by unlimited note printing, would have caused famine and revolution in the German towns. Herr Cuno resigned at the last moment when a catastrophe seemed impending and inevitable. His place was taken by Herr Stresemann, who resolved to change without delay the disastrous policy followed hitherto. He proclaimed that it was necessary to abandon passive resistance, and to make Germany self-supporting by balancing revenue and expenditure and to stabilise the mark by stopping the further issue of banknotes. With this object in view he issued various proclamations, and taxation, railway rates, and postal charges were suddenly increased tenfold and more. The startling change from negligible taxes and charges to very high ones naturally wrought havoc. Business men could not adjust themselves to the extraordinary change. Factories everywhere were closed down. Production shrank in a startling manner. The dissatisfied workers demanded adequate pay for the unemployed and higher wages, with the result that the mark, instead of becoming stabilised, plunged still further, and that the refusal



of agriculturists to sell against German currency became still more pronounced. The second factor which deprived the Anglo-French controversy of much of its bitterness was that Mr. Stanley Baldwin met M. Poincaré on his return from a holiday in France, and that a short conversation brought France and England once more into line, an event which was immediately announced by a communiqué which created a great sensation. The change from opposition to harmony seemed startlingly sudden.\*

For a short while the German crisis was overshadowed by events in Spain and in Bulgaria. Spanish dissatisfaction had become acute. During the war Spain had done very well, but the profits had gone in the main to merchants, manufacturers and other townsmen, while the workers in the factories and the agricultural population had suffered from high prices and inadequate earnings. The endless war in Morocco and its humiliating results increased dissatisfaction, especially as the war expenditure caused a considerable increase in taxation. Syndicalists and Bolsheviks became very active. Many prominent men were murdered. The people of Catalonia agitated for secession from Spain. The outlook became very dark. The Spanish monarchy seemed in danger. At a most critical moment the Spanish army seized power. A Spanish general followed the precedent set by Signor Mussolini, and in Spain, as in Italy, the change was welcomed by millions and was accepted by the King. In Bulgaria a revolution overthrew the peasant government of M. Stambulinski, who lost his life, and a subsequent counter-revolution failed to succeed. At one time it seemed possible that Bulgaria's neighbours would intervene, that another Balkan war would break out.

While matters were being straightened out in Spain and in Bulgaria, trouble arose between Greece and Italy. The Italian members of the Inter-Allied Commission for the Delimitation of the Albanian Frontier were assassinated. Signor Mussolini addressed a peremptory ultimatum to Greece, and as Greece did not comply at once, he sent forces which bombarded and seized the island of Corfu. The League of Nations turned over this affair to the Ambassadors' Conference in Paris, which decided in favour of Italy, after a threat on the part of Signor Mussolini that Italy would leave the League of Nations. Greece's subsequent compliance staved off the possibility of a conflagration. There was friction between Italy and the Serbs about the port of Fiume. At one time it was feared that a collision between Italy and Greece might lead to a collision between Italians and Serbians as well.

In due course the German position became once more the centre of universal interest. It became obvious to all that Herr Stresemann had come too late, that he would not have sufficient time to carry through his programme of creating order out of

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[\*This should be read in connection with Lord Curzon's speech at the Imperial Conference.—EDITORS, B.D.Y.B.]

chaos. The Monarchist reactionaries were deadly enemies to the policy of conciliation, fulfilment and surrender to France, but they were still more hostile to the existence of the Republic. It was seen that the real trouble in Germany was not the problem of reparations but the irreconcilable hostility existing between the supporters of the monarchy and the supporters of the Republic. Throughout Germany it was believed that the Stresemann Government would be the last of the normal governments following the downfall of the Monarchy, that Stresemann's failure was inevitable, and that the country was heading towards a dictatorship or a great revolution. The Monarchists were particularly powerful in Bavaria. Bavaria had for some considerable time opposed Berlin. The reactionary German generals had gone to Munich, where they conspired openly against the Republic and talked about the re-introduction of the Monarchy and a war of revenge. Herr Stresemann's announcement was immediately followed by Bavaria appointing a dictator in Herr von Kahr, a well-known Monarchist, who was in favour of making Prinz Ruprecht of Bavaria king and possibly Emperor of Germany. There was, however, division among the Monarchists in Bavaria, for a section under the influence of Ludendorff and other Prussian officers favoured the return of the Hohenzollerns. In order to counter the ominous Bavarian measure, the Berlin government appointed a counter-Dictator for all Germany. The prospects of civil war increased existing confusion. The movement towards separation from the Reich became more pronounced in the Rhenish lands and in the southern States of Germany. Sanguinary collisions occurred between Monarchists and Republicans, between Secessionists and anti-Secessionists. Trade and industry suffered, and a further fall of the mark to unbelievable depths increased the gloom.

Whilst the situation in Germany grew rapidly worse throughout October, the British Government took the initiative in proposing a Conference of Experts to inquire into Germany's capacity to pay, to which America should be invited to send a representative. M. Poincaré gave a conditional assent, but refused to be a party to any inquiry over which the Reparation Commission had no authority or whose decisions might reduce the total indebtedness of Germany—£6,600,000,000—decided upon in 1921. The result was the United States refused to accept the invitation. Early in November the ex-Crown Prince left Holland and returned to Germany. This event, together with Ludendorff's activities, seemed to presage early and startling developments in the struggle between the Reich, the Separatists and the Monarchists.

At the end of October the Turkish Republic was proclaimed at Angora, and Mustapha Kemal was elected as First President, Ismet Pasha being appointed Prime Minister

# New Flags of Europe\*

By CECIL KING.

**D**URING the last year or so the writer has been assailed on several occasions with requests for information concerning those flags which have come into official existence since the signature of Peace. The sources of some of these demands engender the supposition that little illustrated matter on the subject has been published, except such as finds its way mainly into official circles. It would clearly require a volume to include all the flags which have received recognition since the outbreak of the late war. The flags of Poland alone—including flags of command and military colours—number over a score, and those of other countries in varying proportion. And, even if public interest were to warrant such a meticulous study, the present costs of production would probably postpone the work *sine die*. It has seemed good, then, to place on record only those flags of nationality, such as might be encountered by seafaring men, yachtsmen, and others who travel upon "their lawful occasions" on sea or land, on business, or on pleasure. Changes are still taking place in flags, as in political geography, and the information given here represents, so far as is known, the facts at the time of going to press. The external proportions of the flags shown in the diagrams are to be taken as indicated in the text.

## I.

First there are the flags of those nations of Europe whose names, since the war, are new to us as of sovereign states.

**ESTHONIA.**—Esthonia and Latvia divide between them those Baltic provinces of the late Russian Empire known as Esthonia, Livonia, and Courland. Esthonia lies partly on the Baltic Sea, partly upon that arm of it called the Gulf of Finland, which leads up to Petrograd, from which the Eastern frontier is distant only one hundred miles. Esthonia has various ports, notably Hapsal, Baltischport, and Reval (or Talinn), the capital.

Like the tricolour of France, that of Esthonia has various uses, *i.e.*, as a national flag, as a State flag for legations, etc., and as an ensign for the navy and the mercantile marine. Its proportions are as two to one, and it consists of three equal and horizontal bands: light blue, black, white. It has been suggested that these represent the sky, the soil, and the white shirt of the peasant; it seems more likely that the colours are those of the Finns—to whom the Esthonians are racially allied—with the

[\*This article, accompanied by illustrations on which these diagrams are based, was published in the "Illustrated Review," by whose permission it is reproduced.—EDITORS, B.D.Y.B.]

addition of black, and it is interesting to note that the old flag of Reval is striped horizontally blue and white, white lowermost. No State arms have yet been authorised for Esthonia.

**LATVIA.**—South of Esthonia is Latvia, who owns ports at Libau, Vindau, and the capital (Riga). The Lettish flag has similar uses to the Esthonian, except as a naval ensign, as noted below. The proportions are as two to one, and the flag is composed of three horizontal bans, of which that in the centre is white and the others "dark red (carmine)." The white band is equal in width to one-fifth of the width of the flag, the other two bands being each two-fifths. A law, published in January last, provides for a naval ensign, the description of which suggests that these colours are arranged as a cross in a white flag; a similar flag, with the addition of the State's arms, is to be the President's Standard. No drawing of the naval ensign is so far available in London. The design of the Lettish national flag is accounted for by the fact that the tribes—Semgalians and Kours—who occupied, in the fifth and sixth century A.D., what is now known as Latvia, carried ox-hides into battle painted with ox-blood and smeared down the centre with chalk. We have records of the flags of Courland, which date back two hundred years; red preponderates in these flags, and one of them consists of a flag divided horizontally red and white. The flag of Elbing and the present national flag of Poland are divided horizontally white and red, and, as these territories were once in Polish hands, this later development seems to be due to a Polish rather than to a local influence.

**LITHUANIA.**—To Lithuania was assigned that territory, south of Latvia, which includes the old Russian province of Kovno, together with Suwalki and part of Vilna. She was allotted a very small seaboard on the Baltic, but large enough to include the port of Polangen. Owing to Polish claims on the city of Vilna, the capital has been recently established at the city of Kovno.

The tricolour of Lithuania has proportions as two to one, and consists of three equal and horizontal bands: yellow, green, crimson. This is the national flag and, subject to the reservations noted, is also the ensign of the navy and of the mercantile marine. The State flag, which is used by the legations, etc., is also of proportions as two to one. It is crimson and bears, in white, in its centre, the Knight of Lithuania. The shield of arms of the State is similar, being the shield of the Grand Dukes of Lithuania in the fourteenth century. The naval ensign is to include these arms, and the mercantile flag is to bear the initials of the vessel's owners, but the details of these additions to the Lithuanian tricolour are not hitherto available. The crimson band in the tricolour is taken from the field of the State's arms and, though the origin of the green and yellow bands is a little obscure, it may be observed that a flag of Memel in the early eighteenth century consisted of

# NEW FLAGS OF EUROPE.

By CECIL KING.

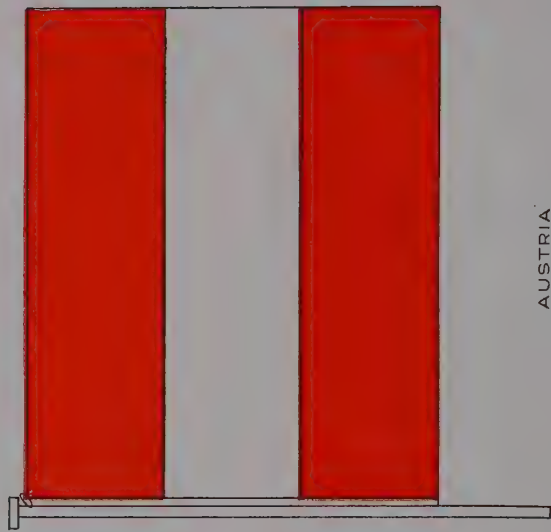


YUGO-SLAVIA (SERBIA)

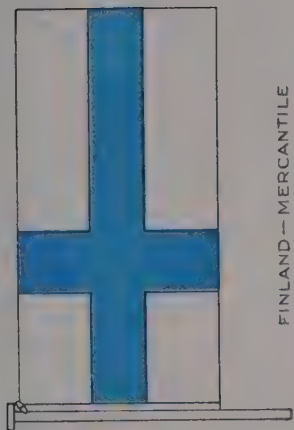




HUNGARY -- NAVAL  
(1:1: DANUBE PATROL)  
IN THE MERCANTILE FLAG THE SHIELD IS CENTRAL



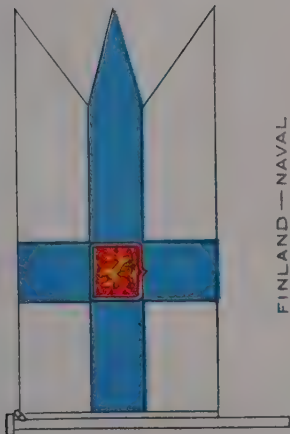
AUSTRIA



FINLAND — MERCANTILE



PORT OF MEMEL



FINLAND — NAVAL



PORT OF DANZIG



LATVIA



ESTHONIA



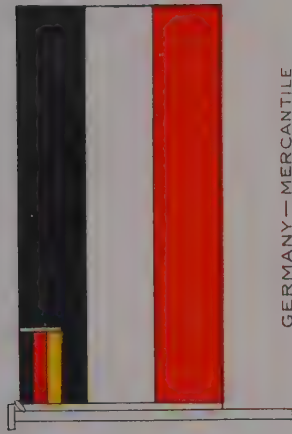
LITHUANIA



LITHUANIA-LEGATIONS



ALBANIA



GERMANY—MERCANTILE



GERMANY'S NATIONAL FLAG



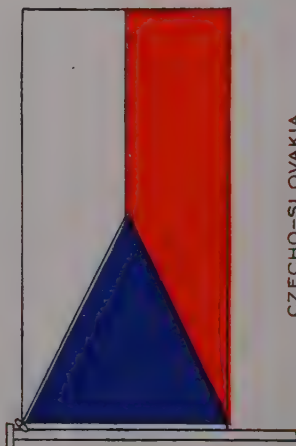
GERMANY—NAVAL



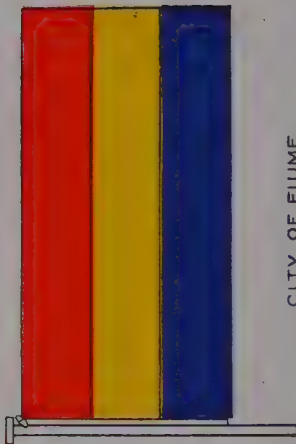
POLAND NAVAL



POLAND MERCANTILE



CZECHO-SLOVAKIA

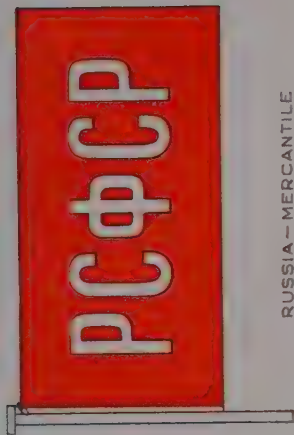


CITY OF FIUME





RUSSIA — NAVAL



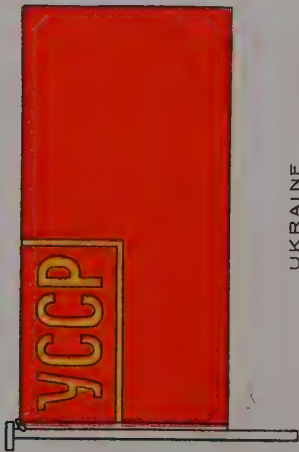
RUSSIA — MERCANTILE



RUSSIA'S NATL. FLAG



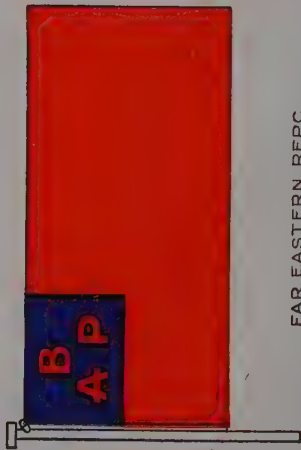
WHITE RUSSIA  
(ARMENIA — ССРА  
GEORGIA — ССРГ)



UKRAINE



AZERBAIJAN



FAR EASTERN REPC.



ICELAND — MERCANTILE

three horizontal bands—green, yellow, green—and this fact may have influenced the designers.

**MEMEL.**—The flag devised for the port and territory of Memel—formerly German—is divided horizontally yellow and orange. The yellow portion contains, near the hoist, an orange roundel charged with a boat, surmounted by three towers—all yellow. Lithuania's claims on Memel have resulted, within the last few weeks, in the cession of that region to Lithuania, who thus obtains another port on the Baltic Sea. It is probable, therefore, that this flag may have a somewhat transitory existence, being superseded, as a mercantile ensign, by the tricolour of Lithuania. It is referred to here for purposes of record only.

**FINLAND.**—The territory of Finland lies partly on the gulf of that name and partly on another arm of the Baltic called the Gulf of Bothnia. Formerly a Grand Duchy under the Russian Empire, Finland is now, like the other Baltic States mentioned above, an independent republic. The capital and principal port—Helsingfors—is situated on the Gulf of Finland opposite to Reval, and the Finnish territory has been extended northward, so as to include a port on the Arctic Ocean also, this place being known as Petsamo.

The flag of Finland is white, charged with a light blue cross. The proportions are as eighteen to eleven, or a little longer than three to two; it will be observed also that the upright arm of the cross is nearer to the hoist than to the fly, as in the cases of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, and that, in like manner, the fly of the naval ensign is cut into points. The proportions of the cross are noted in the diagram. The national flag of Finland is similar to that of the mercantile marine, the State flag having in its centre a similar shield to that seen in the naval ensign. This shield was that of the Grand Dukes of Finland, and consists of a red field charged with a golden crowned lion rampant; the field is bordered with gold, and is charged also with nine white cinquefoils, representing nine Finnish provinces. The lion's dexter fore-leg is clad in armour; he flourishes a sword and tramples on a scimitar. A similar idea, differently expressed, figures in the shield of one of the provinces—Karelen. White and blue, arranged horizontally, are the old colours of Finland.\* The present arrangement dates from the late war only (the first instance seen by the writer was about Christmas, 1918, at Copenhagen); Finnish ships previously used the Russian mercantile ensign, as did those of Esthonia, etc.

**POLAND.**—The Republic now occupies much of that kingdom of Poland which, in the partitions of 1772, etc., went under the domination of Russia, Prussia and Austria. Russian Poland, with the capital—Warsaw—has been reunited with Posen and Galicia, together with a portion of West Prussia, just west of

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\* A similar flag to the 18th century command-flag in the French Naval Squadron.

Danzig. The latter territory gives Poland a small seaboard on the Baltic Sea, containing the towns of Putzig and Karwen. Poland also has the unrestricted use of the port of Danzig, once Polish, but does not control that Free City.

The national flag of the Polish Republic consists of two equal and horizontal bands: white above, red below, the proportions of the whole flag being length to width eight to five, or rather longer than three to two. The mercantile and State flags have the addition of the Polish shield in the centre of the white portion. A similar flag cut into two points is the naval ensign, the extreme proportions of which are as ten and a half to five. The Polish arms, now used as a President's Standard, are very ancient: the device consists of a white eagle (on a red field) crowned and "armed" gold. The designs of Polish flags have undergone certain changes during the last year or two. A Polish flag existed in the first half of the nineteenth century, which consisted of the Russian naval ensign with the Polish eagle in a red canton, and it was at first suggested that the new Polish flag should take this form, but with a red saltire in place of a blue one. The present design was, however, adopted; but, until quite recently, the red portions were coloured "amaranth"—a kind of red-violet or magenta. This colour does not appear, however, to have a very ancient existence in Polish national emblems, though it seems to have been in evidence during the Napoleonic wars and in the insurrection of 1863. Another ancient emblem of Poland is employed in the naval jack, this being an arm with blue sleeve, the hand grasping a scimitar; the jack also displays the cross patée or formée which figures in the army colours. Crosses patée are familiar in old flags of Danzig and in that of Elbing also.

DANZIG—This city and port, formerly German, is now a Free City, a status which, however, it enjoys not for the first time. Danzig has been through many vicissitudes, and was at one time a member of the Hanseatic League. The flags (of more than one design) are familiar to those who consult the old flag books, but were not in evidence at sea in the memory of living man: the only ensign visible in the port at the writer's last visit was the German, and the only flag on land—up the "corridor" to Thorn—was the "rote fahne"; but now vessels can sail out of Danzig with a Danzig flag as a mercantile ensign. The flag is red, and of proportions as three to two. In the hoist are two white crosses pale-wise surmounted by a golden crown. Earlier versions of this flag show it with three crowns (apparently Polish) pale-wise, in place of the crown and crosses, and in some the crosses are Greek, in others they are patée. The present design of the crosses seems to embody a desire to effect a compromise between these two forms.

CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.—The Republic of Czecho-Slovakia is situated in the northern portion of the former Austrian Empire,

and includes Bohemia, Silesia,\* Moravia, and Carpathian Ruthenia. The capital—Prague—was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Bohemia. Czecho-Slovakia is served by the River Danube, upon which it has a port—Bratislava or Pressburg.

The tricolour, like that of Esthonia, has general use. The proportions are as three to two, and the design consists of two equal and horizontal bands: white above, red below. To these is added a blue triangle, arranged in such a way that one side occupies the entire hoist, whilst the apex comes to the centre of the flag. The colours are taken from the State's arms: red and white are the colours in the shield of Bohemia; red, white, and blue in that of Slovakia. The State's arms have several versions, being simplifications of the great arms displayed in the President's Standard.

### II.

**I**N this section are included those States of Europe which existed in 1914, but whose flags have undergone changes—resulting from extensive alterations in territory or government—as a direct outcome of the war.

**GREATER SERBIA.**—The territory of Serbia was vastly increased—at the expense of Austria, Hungary and Montenegro—in order to form what is now known as Yugo-Slavia, or the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

The flag of Serbia, like that of Montenegro, was suppressed and a new tricolour was devised, in which the bands of red, blue and white were re-arranged. This tricolour consists of three equal and horizontal bands: blue, white, red. No proportions appear to have been established by law, but the flag is usually of normal shape—three to two.† The State flag contains, in its centre, a crowned two-headed white eagle, with the shield of arms—as employed in the Royal Standard. These arms represent the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, the colours which compose the tricolour being taken from the arms.

**AUSTRIA.**—The collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Empire led to the establishment of the separate countries of Austria and Hungary—the latter under a Regent. The yellow and black standards of the Empire were suppressed, together with the Austro-Hungarian naval and mercantile ensigns.

The naval ensign of Austria-Hungary had consisted of three equal and horizontal bands: red, white, red, and contained a crowned shield—tierced per fesse—of like design. The flags of the Austrian Republic, both national and mercantile, are similar; the shield is, however, now omitted. Proportions as three to two.

\* *i.e.*, That portion of Silesia which formerly belonged to the Austrian Empire.

† Prior to the war, the shape which we use in this country (2 : 1) was unusual in Europe; the influence of British upon certain post-war flags is fairly apparent.



This design of red and white is historic, for it appeared in the arms of the Emperors of Germany in the days of "Charles Quint," whence it took its place also in the shield of Spain.

HUNGARY.—The sinister half of the Austro-Hungarian mercantile flag was a tricolour of three equal and horizontal bands: red, white, green, and bore the crowned shield of Hungary: the dexter half being like to the Austro-Hungarian naval ensign previously described. The first-named tricolour—with two angels as supporters—is now the national flag of the Hungarian nation—the State, or Legation, flag being very similar. The proportions of the flags are as three to two. The colours in this tricolour are taken from those in the shield of arms. This shield is divided pale-wise: the dexter half is barry of eight, red and white, and represents the four rivers of Hungary. The sinister half represents the mountains and consists of a red field, charged with a white patriarchal cross, the base of which is encircled by a golden crown—the whole standing on a green mountain. This half of the shield bears, therefore, some resemblance to that of Slovakia.

A mercantile flag has been recently designed which is officially described as being the "same as the National Flag, but the arms are without supporters, and are placed at a distance from the staff of one-third of the length of the flag." No official drawing of this flag being yet available, that in the diagram is a pictorial translation of the above description.

GERMANY.—The German Empire also became a republic, but the flags of the Empire, which had been adopted on the formation of the North German "Bund" in 1867, remained in use for some time after the signature of Peace. The national (and mercantile) flag had consisted of a tricolour of three horizontal and equal bands: black, white, red—proportions as three to two. Black and white are the colours of Prussia; red and white are those of the Hanse towns and of Brandenburg.

On the change of constitution, following the Kaiser's abdication, the black and yellow standards were suppressed, and in September, 1919, an alteration was made in the naval ensign, whereby the tricolour in the first quarter was replaced by one of black, red, and yellow, whilst the black Prussian eagle, in the centre of the flag, gave place to one of field-grey, denuded of the symbols of sovereignty. At the same time a national flag was decreed, which—with the addition of this grey eagle on a yellow square—formed the President's Standard. The new national flag is still employed, and consists of three equal and horizontal bands: black, red, yellow. Proportions as three to two. The word "new" is, however, a misnomer, for the flag was used in Germany during that particular period of recurrent domestic unrest which attacked Europe in 1848, and it remained in use until 1867. It is thought to have been in existence also on the demise of the *old* German Empire in 1806—the year of Jena. Apart from any territorial

or racial significance which these three colours may have possessed, they are said to symbolize a sentiment, viz: from the black clouds of slavery, through battle, to the golden light of freedom.

In April, 1921 an order was issued, which came into effect last year. By this order a black eagle replaced the grey, and a new President's Standard was authorised. At sea, the old tricolour is retained, that used by merchant ships having the addition of a small canton of the national colours; this canton has a white vertical edging, two centimetres wide, separating it from the black band of the main tricolour. The naval ensign is similar, but of proportions as five to three, and contains, in its centre, a large black iron cross, edged white. Ex-naval officers in command of merchant ships may wear an iron cross in the centre of the canton in their mercantile ensign. Objections have been raised recently by German traders abroad to these alterations in the flags, on the ground that they tend to injure national prestige.

RUSSIA.—With the suppression of organised resistance to the new state of internal affairs, the flags of the Russian Empire ceased to exist. The flags of Soviet Russia are red and, though no definite proportions seem to have been laid down, they are mostly of approximate dimensions as two to one.

In the national flag the first quarter is divided off with a golden edging and contains, in gold, the initials of the Soviet Government in Moscow. This government has adopted the initials R.S.F.S.R. (Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic), and uses the symbols of a red five-pointed star and a crossed hammer and sickle; the S's in this flag are so arranged as to resemble the last-named symbol. The mercantile flag contains the initials in white characters, and the naval ensign displays a blue anchor, of which the stock bears the same initials in white; a red five-pointed star, edged white, and bearing the hammer and sickle, is placed on the anchor, and the ensign is cut back to about half its length so as to form two points.

White, blue, and red (in that order) are the colours of the late Russian tricolour and of earlier Russian command flags; the prevalence of red in the flags of Soviet Russia calls for no comment. The repetition of history is too familiar for the occasion of any surprise at the recurrence, in Russian social and religious matters, of events which occurred in Paris a century or so ago. In flags, however, a somewhat novel departure has been made: previously, flags were based, more or less, on heraldry; the flags of Soviet Russia indulge principally in lettering, and it is probably only the classical reminiscence evoked by the shape of the Russian characters which saves these flags from being extremely ugly.

The status of some of the territories mentioned below—as established at the Peace Conference—would normally have included them in the first of these articles; but, as in certain other matters laid down by that assembly, *de facto* is not necessarily

synonymous with *de jure*. They were said to be Sovereign States, but are stated also to be on the point of amalgamation with the Moscow Government. Armenia, Georgia and Azerbaijan have been recently credited with a union called the "Transcaucasian Soviet Republic," and the Legation of Georgia (with its flag of black, white, and crimson)—like that of Ukraina—seems to have shaken off the dust of London. The present flags of the two European Soviet Republics are as follows, both being red and of proportions as two to one:—

UKRAINIA (capital—Kharkoff).—The first quarter is separated off with a yellow edging, and contains, in yellow, the letters: **YCCP** (Ukrainian Socialist Soviet Republic).

WHITE-RUSSIA (capital—Minsk).—The same, with the substitution of **CCPB** (Socialist Soviet Republic of White-Russia).

The new flags of such countries as Siam, Afghanistan, the Hedjaz, Salvador, Abyssinia, Egypt, and Morocco—being all extra-European—are outside the scope of this subject, as are the new badges of Canada and Western Samoa, and various similar matters concerning Dependencies and Mandatory States. The flags of Asiatic Russia may, however, be mentioned here, because of the similarity of their designs to those used by the Moscow Government and the European Soviet Republics allied to it:—

GEORGIA (capital—Tiflis).—The same as Ukraina, with the substitution of **CCPT** (Socialist Soviet Republic of Georgia).

ARMENIA (capital—Erivan).—The same, with the substitution of **CCPA** (Socialist Soviet Republic of Armenia).

AZERBAIJAN (capital—Baku).—A red flag with a white decrescent moon and five-pointed star—near the hoist and enhanced.

Details of the flags used by the People's Soviet Republics of Bokhara and Khiva are not available, nor are those of the flag employed by the Republic of Mongolia. The other republic of Asia uses a flag as follows:—

FAR-EASTERN REPUBLIC (capital—Chita).—A red flag containing a blue canton, bearing the letters **BAP** in red.

This concluding section contains those flags which came into existence for reasons unconnected, or only remotely connected, with the war—or are otherwise difficult to classify. The countries of San Marino, Andorra, Liechtenstein, and Albania, for example, had separate existences before the war; reference to the flag of the last-named is made here only because it is presumably unfamiliar.

FIUME.—The status of Fiume, as established by the Treaty of Rapallo, would seem to be similar to that of Danzig or Memel, as established by that of Versailles—a fact which would normally include it, with them, in the first of these articles. The *coup* of d'Annunzio had its effect on flags, but only concerned the colours borne by the *Arditi*. The present condition of Fiume, as of certain other portions of the Adriatic coast, is not entirely clear—hence its inclusion in this section. An official description of the

flag of Fiume has just been issued and from this—no official drawing being yet available—the diagram given here is taken.

ICELAND.—The island of Iceland obtained, during the war period, a self-governing status under the Kingdom of Denmark, and its flag dates from about 1918. This flag is as shown in the diagram, the State flag and that used by Government vessels being cut into two points. The red and white are taken from the flag of Denmark. Sky-blue is a popular colour associated with Iceland; perhaps the popularity of green in Iceland is not too remote an analogy. Sky-blue and dark reds are not unusual in the new flags of Europe—such “stains” (or “tinctures”) being apparently more common in Continental than in English heraldry.

ALBANIA. The flag of Albania is red, charged with a double-headed black eagle, “armed” gold. Albania, formerly Turkish, came into separate existence as a result of the First Balkan War in 1913, and remains independent.

IRELAND.—The revolutionary tricolour of Ireland consisted of three equal and vertical bands: yellow, white, green. This tricolour is still used in Ireland, no official announcement of a flag on normal Dominion lines, either for the Free State or its Governor-General, having yet appeared.

ROYAL AIR FORCE.—The white ensign, designed for the R.A.F. after the war, had a brief existence,\* possibly on account of its resemblance to the (now obsolete) German naval ensign. The present flag of the R.A.F. is like in shape and design to the Blue Ensign; but the blue portion is sky-blue and is charged with the target, familiar on aeroplane wings. The æsthetic value of this flag is a matter of opinion.

Various other flags have come into existence also: the white and blue of the Allied Maritime Transport (sometimes called the “Armistice Flag”) was a familiar feature at sea after the close of hostilities. This, and the somewhat similar flag of the Inter-Allied Danube Commission, are now obsolete. Bulgaria adopted a new Royal Standard, and France and Spain new naval command-flags, but all such details are too elaborate for consideration here.

The writer desires, in conclusion, to record his appreciation of the assistance given to him in bringing this material up-to-date. His thanks are especially due to the Government Departments chiefly concerned in such matters, and to the representatives in London or elsewhere of most of the countries referred to.

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\* If it ever existed outside a newspaper report of the period.

*Addenda.*—1. Recent information suggests that the crimson in the Lithuanian flags is more brilliant than as shown in the diagram accompanying Part I of these articles.

2 A statement received from Buda-Pesth indicates that the flag with arms one-third distance from the mast (see diagram) will be used for the Danube Patrol vessels, the shield in the Hungarian mercantile flag being in the centre.

## Ministers and Parliament in 1923

By W. V. ROBERTS.

*Editor of "Dod's Parliamentary Companion."*

THE General Election of November, 1922, following the break-up of Mr. Lloyd George's Coalition Government, so completely transformed the character of the House of Commons, and, therefore, had so incalculable an effect upon the work of the Session of 1923, that it is well to take some detailed notice of it. The outstanding result of the voting was that it gave Mr. Bonar Law the substantial and very satisfactory majority of 79, the revised figures being:

|                       |     |
|-----------------------|-----|
| Conservatives elected | 347 |
| All other members     | 268 |

---

|                       |    |
|-----------------------|----|
| Conservative majority | 79 |
|-----------------------|----|

That meant the final sweeping away of the Coalition by the country, and the confirmation in office for the first time for many years of a purely Conservative Government. But although purely Conservative in character, the position of the Government was in various respects peculiar. Some twenty National Liberals, headed by Mr. Lloyd George, had resigned office on the fall of the Coalition, but that did not leave the Conservatives a united party. Mr. Austen Chamberlain, who had been the leader of the Conservative party in Parliament and the country, stood aloof, and with him were the Earl of Birkenhead, Earl of Balfour, Sir Robert Horne, Sir L. Worthington-Evans, Lord Lee of Fareham, the Earl of Crawford and Balcarres, Sir Ernest Pollock, Sir Leslie Scott, Sir W. Mitchell Thomson and Col. Sir John Gilmour. Consequently, Mr. Bonar Law's Administration was weakened very much in personnel. Mr. Austen Chamberlain thought that on any appeal to the country the Conservatives standing alone would not secure the coveted majority of seats, and that there would have to be some return to coalition, though possibly not precisely on the old lines. But the verdict of the polls upset all such calculations. Mr. Bonar Law secured a majority. The question then arose, would Mr. Austen Chamberlain's group of Conservatives rejoin the Government and give it the needed strength? Mr. Bonar Law kept open certain offices like that of Lord Privy Seal and was understood to be ready to make readjustments in order to secure their inclusion. Yet the group held back, so that the country had a Conservative Government minus most of its old Conservative leaders. Of sixteen members of Mr. Bonar Law's Cabinet, only eight had had previous Cabinet experience.



Another matter of importance was that at the General Election no fewer than five members of the Government lost their seats, these being :—

Sir A. Griffith-Boscawen, Minister of Health.

Major J. W. Hills, Financial Secretary to the Treasury.

Col. Leslie Wilson, Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury.

Hon. G. F. Stanley, Under-Secretary, Home Department.

Mr. James Kidd, Under-Secretary of Health, Scotland.

In addition the Hon. William Watson and Mr. D. P. Fleming, K.C., who had been appointed Lord Advocate and Solicitor-General for Scotland respectively, although they had been without seats in the old Parliament, failed to secure seats in the new. Here, therefore, were seven Ministers without seats, and the difficulty was to find seven newly elected Conservatives with "safe" seats willing to resign in order to make room for them. Sir A. Griffith-Boscawen's exclusion was greatly felt by the Cabinet, because as Minister of Health he had charge of the Rent and Housing questions, which at the time were uppermost and urgent. Major Hills was missed at the Treasury, and Col. Wilson was chief Conservative Whip; while the failure of Mr. Kidd, the Hon. W. Watson and Mr. Fleming meant that not a single Minister for Scotland had a seat in the Commons, Lord Novar, the Scottish Secretary, being, of course, in the Lords. A seat was soon found for Col. Wilson at Portsmouth South by the retirement of Major Cayzer; but an effort to secure a seat for Sir A. Griffith-Boscawen in the Mitcham Division of Surrey by the resignation of Dr. Worsfold led to one of the most exciting by-elections of recent years and ultimate defeat of the Minister.

In the result Mr. Bonar Law had to make other arrangements. Mr. Neville Chamberlain, who had joined the Government as Postmaster-General, although his brother remained outside, became Minister of Health, Major Boyd Carpenter was appointed Financial Secretary to the Treasury in place of Major Hills, Mr. Godfrey Locker Lampson succeeded the Hon. G. F. Stanley at the Home Office, and Capt. Walter Elliot and Mr. F. C. Thomson took the places of Mr. Kidd and Mr. Fleming respectively in the Scottish Department, the Hon. W. Watson continuing to act as Lord Advocate without a seat in Parliament. No seat was risked in Scotland, and at the time of writing no by-election has occurred in Scotland.

At the same time it should be noted that Mr. Lloyd George's party likewise suffered severely at the polls. Ex-Ministers like Mr. Winston Churchill, Sir Hamar Greenwood, Mr. F. G. Kellaway, Mr. Arthur Neal, Mr. MacCallum Scott, Sir Tudor Walters and Mr. Dudley Ward, together with nearly forty other National Liberals, all lost their seats on seeking re-election. Independent Liberals lost their leader in Sir Donald Maclean, defeated at Peebles,

and seventeen other of their members; while Labour also lost seventeen members, including Mr. Arthur Henderson, their chief House of Commons Whip. Then by the Act constituting the Irish Free State, the membership of the House was reduced by 92—from a total of 707 to 615: so from one cause and another the House was very largely transformed. Thus—

- 92 fewer Irish members had to be elected.
- 137 old members retired.
- 125 old members were defeated at the polls
- 262 new members were returned.
- 353 old members were re-elected.

Had there been no Irish Act, and had Ireland continued to send 86 Nationalists to Parliament as before, the Conservatives would have been in a minority, and some sort of coalition as Mr. Austen Chamberlain anticipated would have been inevitable. As it was, the relative strength of parties before and immediately after the election worked out as under:

|                              | Before. | After. |
|------------------------------|---------|--------|
| Conservatives . . . . .      | 368     | 347    |
| National Democrats . . . . . | 12      | —      |
| National Liberals . . . . .  | 127     | 53     |
| Liberals . . . . .           | 35      | 64     |
| Labour . . . . .             | 73      | 142    |
| Sinn Feiners . . . . .       | 73      | 1      |
| Irish Nationalists . . . . . | 7       | 2      |
| Others . . . . .             | 12      | 6      |
|                              | 707     | 615    |

With a solid block of 142 votes, Labour claimed to be the chief opposition and was so recognised. While Conservatives nominally had a majority of 79 in seats as already shown, critics were never tired of reminding them that they had not secured a majority of votes in the country. Mr. J. H. Humphrey, Secretary of the Proportional Representation Society, computed that if members had been returned in exact proportion to the votes cast, the House would have been constituted as follows:—

|                                    |     |
|------------------------------------|-----|
| Conservatives . . . . .            | 256 |
| Labour and Co-operatives . . . . . | 167 |
| Independent Liberals . . . . .     | 106 |
| National Liberals . . . . .        | 69  |
| Others . . . . .                   | 17  |
| Total . . . . .                    | 615 |

Much the same has been said of previous Governments and parties, but in 1923 the position acquired exceptional significance owing to the reshaping of all the groups

### Change of Government.

Parliament met on February 13, but interest soon shifted to constituencies in which ex-Ministers were seeking election—East Willesden, Mitcham, and Liverpool (Edge Hill division), and the results, announced on three successive days in March, formed in their cumulative effect, perhaps, the most damaging blow that any new Government has ever received. The Hon. G. F. Stanley was defeated by Mr. Harcourt Johnstone (Liberal) at East Willesden by a majority of 5,176; Sir A. Griffith-Boscawen failed at Mitcham by 833, the seat going to Labour: and Major Hills lost at Liverpool by 1,050, also to Labour. Added to that the health of Mr. Bonar Law began to give cause for anxiety. With so many new men around him in the Government, almost everything depended upon him as Prime Minister in the House, and unhappily his voice gave way just when the greater calls were made upon it. In the hope that he would recuperate he spent the Easter recess quietly at Torquay, but that failed to effect the much-desired restoration.

On May 1 Mr. Bonar Law left for a trip to the Mediterranean, his medical advisers assuring him that, if he delayed return till after the Whitsun holiday, there was every reason to suppose that his voice would be completely restored. Unhappily the hope again was not realised. On May 20 he was back in London and was seen on that day by his medical advisers, who signed the following bulletin:—"In spite of his rest, the Prime Minister's voice is still unsatisfactory. We are unable to promise improvement within a reasonable time. The state of the Prime Minister's general health is not good." On that Mr. Bonar Law, unable to go to Aldershot where His Majesty was staying, sent his resignation of the Premiership to the King, who had no alternative but to accept it with regret.\* Thereupon great discussion arose as to who should be Premier, the choice generally being regarded as lying between the Marquess Curzon of Kedleston, Foreign Secretary and Leader of the House of Lords, and Mr. Stanley Baldwin, who had won golden opinions as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and acting leader for Mr. Bonar Law in the House of Commons. In the result the King decided that the Prime Minister should be in the Commons, and therefore sent for Mr. Baldwin, who accepted the Premiership and constituted his Government, subject to the modifications indicated, as follows:—

\*Mr. Bonar Law died on October 30; affectionate tributes to his character and work came from all over the world; in him it was felt that public life had lost a fearless, honest and wholly unselfish servant, who had faced onerous responsibilities despite domestic sorrow and personal suffering; he was buried in Westminster Abbey.

# The British Dominions Year Book 1924

## THE CABINET.

|                                                |                                                 |
|------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| Rt. Hon. Stanley Baldwin, M.P.                 | Rt. Hon. Viscount Peel.                         |
| Rt. Hon. Lord Robert Cecil,<br>K.C., M.P.      | Rt. Hon. Sir S. Hoare, Bt., M.P.                |
| Rt. Hon. Marquess of Salisbury,<br>K.G.        | Rt. Hon. L. C. M. S. Amery, M.P.                |
| Rt. Hon. Viscount Cave, K.C.                   | Rt. Hon. Sir P. Lloyd-Greame, M.P.              |
| Rt. Hon. W. C. Bridgeman, M.P.                 | Rt. Hon. Neville Chamberlain, M.P.              |
| Rt. Hon. Marquess Curzon of<br>Kedleston, K.G. | Rt. Hon. Sir R. A. Sanders, Bt., M.P.           |
| Rt. Hon. the Duke of Devonshire,<br>K.G.       | Rt. Hon. Viscount Novar.                        |
| Rt. Hon. the Earl of Derby, K.G.               | Rt. Hon. E. F. L. Wood, M.P.                    |
|                                                | Rt. Hon. Sir M. Barlow, M.P.                    |
|                                                | Rt. Hon. Sir L. Worthington-Evans,<br>Bt., M.P. |
|                                                | Rt. Hon. Sir W. Joynson-Hicks, M.P.             |

## THE ADMINISTRATION.

**PRIME MINISTER, FIRST LORD OF THE TREASURY, AND LEADER OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS:** Rt. Hon. Stanley Baldwin, M.P.

**LORD PRIVY SEAL:** Rt. Hon. Lord Robert Cecil, K.C., M.P.

**LORD PRESIDENT OF THE COUNCIL AND DEPUTY LEADER OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS:** Rt. Hon. the Marquess of Salisbury, K.G.

**LORD CHANCELLOR:** Rt. Hon. Viscount Cave, K.C.

**HOME AFFAIRS—Secretary of State:** Rt. Hon. W. C. Bridgeman, M.P.  
**Under-Secretary of State:** Godfrey L. T. Locker-Lampson, M.P.

**FOREIGN AFFAIRS—Secretary of State and Leader of the House of Lords:**  
The Rt. Hon. the Marquess Curzon of Kedleston, K.G. **Under-Secretary of State:** Ronald McNeill, M.P.

**COLONIES—Secretary of State:** The Duke of Devonshire, K.G. **Under-Secretary of State:** Hon. W. Ormsby-Gore, M.P.

**WAR OFFICE—Secretary of State:** Rt. Hon. the Earl of Derby, K.G. **Under-Secretary of State:** Col. Wilfrid Ashley.  
**Financial Secretary:** Rupert S. Gwynne, M.P.

**AIR MINISTRY—Secretary of State:** Rt. Hon. Sir Samuel Hoare, Bt., M.P.  
**Under-Secretary of State:** The Duke of Sutherland, K.G.

**INDIA OFFICE—Secretary of State:** Rt. Hon. Viscount Peel. **Under-Secretary of State:** Earl Winterton, M.P.

**ADMIRALTY—First Lord:** Rt. Hon. L. C. M. S. Amery, M.P. **Parliamentary and Financial Secretary:** Major A. B. Boyd Carpenter, M.P.<sup>1</sup> **Civil Lord,** Rt. Hon. Marquess of Linlithgow.

**BOARD OF TRADE—President:** Rt. Hon. Sir Philip Lloyd-Greame, M.P. **Parliamentary Secretary:** Viscount Wolmer, M.P. **Mines Department Secretary:** Lieut.-Col. G. R. Lane Fox, M.P. **Overseas Trade Department Parliamentary Secretary:** Lieut.-Col. Albert Buckley, D.S.O., M.P.

**MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES—Minister:** Rt. Hon. Sir Robert A. Sanders, Bt., M.P. **Parliamentary Secretary and Deputy Minister of Fisheries:** The Earl of Ancaster.

**MINISTRY OF TRANSPORT—Parliamentary Secretary:** Lieut.-Col. T. C. Moore-Brabazon, M.P.

**MINISTRY OF LABOUR—Minister:** Rt. Hon. Sir Montague Barlow, M.P. **Parliamentary Secretary:** Henry B. Betterton, M.P.

**MINISTRY OF HEALTH—Minister:** Rt. Hon. Sir William Joynson-Hicks, M.P.<sup>2</sup> **Parliamentary Secretary:** Lord Eustace S. C. Percy, M.P.

**MINISTRY OF PENSIONS—Minister:** Major Rt. Hon. G. C. Tryon, M.P. **Parliamentary Secretary:** Capt. Rt. Hon. Charles C. Craig, M.P.

**CHANCELLOR OF THE DUCHY OF LANCASTER:** J. C. C. Davidson, M.P.

<sup>1</sup> Succeeded Comdr. Rt. Hon. B. M. Eyres-Monsell (transferred) in July.

<sup>2</sup> Succeeded Mr. Neville Chamberlain in August.

## Ministers and Parliament in 1923

BOARD OF EDUCATION—President: Rt. Hon. Edward F. L. Wood, M.P.  
Parliamentary Secretary: The Earl of Onslow.  
FIRST COMMISSIONER OF WORKS—Rt. Hon. Sir John Baird, Bt., D.S.O., M.P.  
ATTORNEY-GENERAL: Rt. Hon. Sir Douglas McGarel Hogg, K.C., M.P.  
SOLICITOR-GENERAL: Sir Thomas W. H. Inskip, K.C., M.P.  
POSTMASTER-GENERAL: Rt. Hon. Sir L. Worthington-Evans, Bt., M.P.  
PAYMASTER-GENERAL: Major A. B. Boyd Carpenter, M.P.  
TREASURY—Chancellor of the Exchequer: Rt. Hon. Neville Chamberlain, M.P.<sup>1</sup> Parliamentary Secretary: Commander Rt. Hon. B. M. Eyres-Monsell, M.P.<sup>1</sup> Financial Secretary: Lieut.-Col. Hon. Walter Guinness, D.S.O., M.P. Lords Commissioners: Capt. H. Douglas King, D.S.O., M.P., Major J. R. G. Hennessy, M.P., Major W. Cope, M.P. (unpaid), Patrick J. Ford, M.P. Assistant Government Whips (unpaid): Lt.-Col. R. F. Roundell, M.P., Major W. P. Colfox, M.C., M.P.

### SCOTLAND.

Secretary: Rt. Hon. Viscount Novar.  
Lord Advocate: Rt. Hon. William Watson, K.C.  
Solicitor-General: F. C. Thomson, K.C., M.P.  
Parliamentary Under-Secretary for Health: Capt. W. E. Elliot, M.C., M.P.

### HOUSEHOLD.

Lord Chamberlain: Rt. Hon. the Earl of Cromer.  
Lord Steward: The Earl of Shaftesbury, K.P.  
Treasurer: Col. George A. Gibbs, M.P.  
Comptroller: Major H. Barnston, M.P.  
Vice-Chamberlain: Capt. Douglas H. Hacking, M.P.  
Capt. of the Gentleman-at-Arms: The Earl of Clarendon.  
Capt. of the Yeoman of the Guard: Lord Hylton.  
Master of the Horse: Rt. Hon. the Marquess of Bath, K.G.  
Lords-in-Waiting: Viscount Valentia, Lord Somerleyton, the Earl of Bradford, the Earl of Lucan, the Earl of Malmesbury, the Earl of Albemarle.  
Charity Commissioner in the House of Commons: Lieut.-Col. H. H. Spender-Clay, M.C., M.P.  
Forestry Commissioner: L. A. Forestier-Walker, M.P.  
Second Church Estate Commissioner, representing Ecclesiastical Commissioners: Major J. D. Birchall, M.P.

Most of the above appointments (apart, it will be noticed from one or two later re-arrangements) were in confirmation of those held in Mr. Bonar Law's Government. The surprise of the day was in the announcement that Mr. Stanley Baldwin would continue to act as Chancellor of the Exchequer for a time, and that then Mr. Reginald McKenna, a former Liberal Chancellor, would formally take over the office and join the Government. Sir Samuel Hoare was admitted to the Cabinet as Minister for Air. Lord Robert Cecil joined it as Lord Privy Seal, and Sir L. Worthington-Evans returned to the Cabinet as Postmaster-General. Otherwise there was little change in personnel. On the August Bank Holiday, however, the papers announced that for various reasons Mr. McKenna would not join the Government.

<sup>1</sup> Appointed in August on Mr. McKenna's definite decision not to join the Government.

<sup>1</sup> Successor to Lt.-Col. Rt. Hon. Leslie Wilson (Governor of Bombay), July, 1923.



### The King's Speech.

Parliament was opened by the King in a speech of exceptional brevity in respect of topics discussed or legislation foreshadowed. His Majesty regretted that efforts to settle the German Reparation question had failed, with the result that the French and Belgian Governments had proceeded to put their own plan into force. The British Government, he added, were acting in such a way as not to add to the difficulties of their Allies. The King also regretted that in spite of the conciliatory spirit shown by the Allies during the preceding three months at Lausanne, in a sincere effort to end the conditions of warfare that for over eight years had desolated the Near East, the Treaty, when on the verge of signature, had been declined by the Turkish delegation, though His Majesty hoped they might still be disposed to accept that Treaty. [The Treaty was, indeed, signed on July 24.] The King welcomed the prospective settlement of our war debt to the United States—which reflected the determination of our people to meet their obligations.

Turning to home affairs, the King recognised that reductions in public expenditure remained essential to the well-being of the State. The serious state of unemployment, His Majesty added, caused him the greatest concern and continually engaged the attention of Ministers. But the increase in oversea trade gave ground for confidence, with hope of continued improvement. His Majesty looked forward to a greater development of Imperial trade in co-operation with the various Governments of the Empire. With a view to relieve some of the difficulties of agriculture, Parliament would be asked to consider the granting of credit facilities to those engaged in the industry. Ministers were examining the inequalities of local taxation and hoped, in particular, to remove some of the burdens which pressed on agriculture. Measures would be presented dealing with unemployment insurance benefit, housing, trade boards, and industrial insurance.

Following the proposals of the Departmental Committee appointed to consider the operation of the Increase of Rent and Mortgage Interest (Restrictions) Act, Parliament would be asked to deal with difficulties arising out of the legal interpretation of that Act. Measures would also be submitted for simplifying legal procedure and effecting economies, especially in the County Courts, and for consolidating the various branches of the law, particularly that relating to the Supreme Court and to Real Property conveyancing.

The first of the measures mentioned in the King's Speech to pass into law was that relating to Unemployment Insurance. This extended the period of uncovenanted benefit by 22 weeks, and made further provision for industrial insurance until October. The Royal Assent was given on March 30. The Govern-

ment's most contentious Bills, however, dealt with Rents and Housing. In the first instance a Bill had to be presented to regularise the situation arising out of the failure of landlords, especially in Scotland, to give legal notice to quit as a preliminary to increase of rent. The Bill fixed December 1st, 1922, as the crucial date—empowering a landlord to retain amounts paid before then and to recover arrears up to the amount of the legal notice that accrued afterwards. It had a stormy passage but received the Royal Assent on June 7.

Then came the more general question in view of the expiry of the Rent Restrictions Act at Midsummer, and when it became apparent that a Bill on the subject could not pass before that day, a short measure was drafted and passed prolonging the expiring Act till July 31. The principal Bill—Rent and Mortgage Interest Restrictions Bill—was read a second time, after two days debate, on June 7, when a reasoned amendment from the Labour benches was defeated by 287 votes to 123. The Bill continued the existing Act for two years, when the then conditions are to be reviewed, and contemplated continuance of some form of control till 1930. It, however, made various modifications meanwhile, enabling a landlord, for instance, to take a house out of control if he came into possession of it, enabled landlord and tenant to enter into a special lease or agreement, re-defined the terms on which the landlord of a single house could obtain possession for his own use, made excessive charges for furniture or attendance an offence, and sought to remedy the grievance of sub-letting. Greatly modified in passage, it became law on July 31.\*

The Housing question proved to be more thorny still. The Bill foreshadowed by Sir A. Griffith Boscawen was so fiercely assailed at Mitcham and elsewhere that when Mr. Neville Chamberlain became Minister of Health he drafted an entirely new measure. This proposed to encourage building by a Government subsidy of 46 a house for 20 years, made special provisions as to the size and character of the houses to be built, empowered local authorities to make advances to superior artisans to encourage them to build or purchase houses for themselves, proposed aid on similar lines to public utility societies, and offered advantages in respect of houses converted into flats or maisonnettes. The Bill, though strongly opposed, received the Royal Assent before the adjournment.

Next an Indemnity Bill was needed to meet an extraordinary situation which arose out of the arrests by authority of the Home Secretary of a large number of suspected Irishmen, who were handed over to the Irish Free State without trial. The matter was contested in the Courts, with the result that the House of Lords finally decided against the Home Secretary, and the prisoners

[\*The Act is explained in an article by Mr. Herbert Stroud.—EDITORS, B.D.Y.B.]

had to be released. Claims to large compensation were suggested on their behalf. Hence the Bill of Indemnity. To that measure, however, was added, at the instance of Viscount Grey of Falloden, an affirmation of the long-established principle of the constitution that the Executive should not, without the previous and special authority of Parliament, exercise the power of arrest without bringing to trial by due process of law.

Other Government measures passed before the adjournment included the Agricultural Credits Act, which made provision for short term credit facilities for farmers to enable them to carry on under various specified conditions, the Agricultural Rates Act, which, among other things, provided that the occupiers of agricultural land now paying half rates are in future to pay only quarter rates; and the Forestry (Transfer of Woods) Act, for transferring to the Forestry Commissioners, the woods and forests now under the management of the Commission of Woods. Also may be mentioned the Increase of Fees Act, which provides for an increase of fees chargeable for certain official services. As drafted it would have authorised charges for admission to the British Museum and the Natural History Museum, but so strong was the opposition that that proposal had to be withdrawn. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge Act gave effect to various recommendations of the Commission presided over by Mr. Asquith and proposed financial assistance, though not to the extent of £100,000 a year for each University as suggested by the Commission. The Special Constables Act, provided for the continuance of special constables as a force. The Mines (Working Facilities and Support) Act was introduced to release coal near railways heretofore held up. The Public Works Loans Act authorised the allocation in the current year to the Public Works Loan Commissioners of any sum not exceeding £20,000,000 for the purpose of loans to local authorities and public utility societies. The Railways (Authorisation of Works) Act extended the power of the Minister of Transport by enabling him to authorise railway companies to carry out works of improvement up to £500,000 in any one place, as against a previous limit of £100,000.

Two private members succeeded in placing measures on the statute book before the adjournment. Lady Astor had the distinction of being the first woman member to do this—with the Intoxicating Liquor (Sale to Persons under Eighteen) Act, while Major Entwistle secured the passing of the Matrimonial Causes Act, giving a wife the right to divorce her husband for adultery alone.

The Government deferred till the Autumn sittings Bills dealing with Honours (Prevention of Abuses), the Administration of Justice, Criminal Justice, Education in Scotland, Workmen's Compensation, Agricultural Wage Agreements, Mental Treatment, Trade Boards, and other measures.

### The By-Elections.

The by-elections of the year have been exceptionally few in number, only fifteen vacancies having occurred between the General Election and the adjournment in August. Col. Leslie Wilson was the only ex-Minister to be returned at a by-election (Portsmouth South), and that seat he resigned in July on becoming Governor of Bombay. Mr. Arthur Henderson, Sir R. J. Thomas and Mr. F. D. Acland, who sat in the last House of Commons, have, however, secured re-admission. A third woman member, Mrs. Philipson, has been returned for Berwick in place of her husband who was unseated on petition through the acts of an agent, and Mr. Robert Smillie (Labour), has been elected for Morpeth after having made seven unsuccessful attempts previously to enter the House of Commons. The contested elections resulted as under:—

#### PORTSMOUTH SOUTH (Dec.).

|                                                           |             |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Col. Leslie Wilson (C.) . . . . .                         | 14,301      |
| Comdr. G. Thomas (Ind.) . . . . .                         | 8,434—5,867 |
| Major Cayzer's majority (C.) at General Election, 10,880. |             |

#### NEWCASTLE, EAST.

|                                                              |             |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Mr. A. Henderson (Lab.) . . . . .                            | 11,066      |
| Major H. Barnes (L.) . . . . .                               | 6,682—4,384 |
| Capt. Gee, V.C. (C.) . . . . .                               | 6,480       |
| Labour Majority (Mr. J. N. Bell) at General Election, 3,085. |             |

#### WHITECHAPEL.

|                                                                |             |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| H. Gosling (Lab.) . . . . .                                    | 8,398       |
| J. D. Kiley (L.) . . . . .                                     | 6,198—2,200 |
| S. M. Holden (Prohibition) . . . . .                           | 130         |
| General Election Majority, Mr. C. J. Mathew, K.C. (Lab.), 428. |             |

#### DARLINGTON.

|                                                             |              |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|--------------|
| Ald. W. E. Pease (C.) . . . . .                             | 14,684       |
| W. Sherwood (Lab.) . . . . .                                | 11,271—3,413 |
| General Election: Mr. H. Pike Pease's majority (C.), 4,238. |              |

#### WILLESDEN, EAST.

|                                                                   |             |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| W. Harcourt Johnstone (L.) . . . . .                              | 14,824      |
| Lt.-Col. Hon. G. F. Stanley (C.) . . . . .                        | 9,648—5,176 |
| Sir H. Mallaby Deeley's majority at General Election (C.), 1,314. |             |

#### SURREY (MITCHAM DIVISION).

|                                                      |           |
|------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| J. Chuter Ede (Lab.) . . . . .                       | 8,029     |
| Sir A. Griffith-Boscawen (C.) . . . . .              | 7,196—833 |
| Ernest Brown (L.) . . . . .                          | 3,214     |
| J. T. Catterall (Ind. C.) . . . . .                  | 2,684     |
| General Election majority: Dr. Worsfold (C.), 5,036. |           |

#### LIVERPOOL (EDGE HILL DIVISION).

|                                                             |             |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| J. H. Hayes (Lab.) . . . . .                                | 10,300      |
| Major J. W. Hills (C.) . . . . .                            | 9,250—1,050 |
| General Election: Sir W. Rutherford's majority (C.), 4,666. |             |

#### ANGLESEY.

|                                                                |             |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Sir R. J. Thomas (L.) . . . . .                                | 11,116      |
| E. T. John (Lab.) . . . . .                                    | 6,368—4,748 |
| R. O. Roberts (C.) . . . . .                                   | 3,385       |
| Brig.-Gen. Sir Owen Thomas's majority (Ind) in 1922 was 1,862. |             |

## The British Dominions Year Book 1924

### SALOP (LUDLOW DIVISION).

|                                                     |             |
|-----------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Lt.-Col. G. Windsor-Clive (C.)                      | 9,956       |
| Capt. E. G. Pryce (L.)                              | 6,740—3,216 |
| Lieut. P. F. Pollard (Lab.)                         | 1,420       |
| Viscount Windsor's majority in 1922 (C.) was 5,808. |             |

### BERWICK-ON-TWEED.

|                                                    |             |
|----------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Mrs. Hilton Philipson (C.)                         | 12,000      |
| Capt. Harold Robson (L.)                           | 5,858—6,142 |
| G. Oliver (Lab.)                                   | 3,966       |
| Mr. Philipson's majority (N.L.) in 1922 was 4,579. |             |

### DEVON (TIVERTON DIVISION).

|                                                         |            |
|---------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| Rt. Hon. F. D. Acland (L.)                              | 12,041     |
| Col. Acland Troyle (C.)                                 | 11,638—403 |
| F. Brown (Ind. Lab.)                                    | 495        |
| Mr. H. W. S. Sparkes (C.) had a majority in 1922 of 74. |            |

### MORPETH.

|                                                 |              |
|-------------------------------------------------|--------------|
| Robert Smillie (Lab.)                           | 20,053       |
| F. C. Thornborough (L.)                         | 13,087—6,966 |
| In 1922 Mr. Cairns's majority (Lab.) was 5,019. |              |

### LEEDS, CENTRAL.

|                                               |              |
|-----------------------------------------------|--------------|
| Sir Charles Wilson (C.)                       | 13,085       |
| H. H. Slessor (Lab.)                          | 11,359—1,726 |
| Gilbert Stone (L.)                            | 3,026        |
| Mr. Willey's majority (C.) in 1922 was 6,295. |              |

### PORTSMOUTH, SOUTH.

|                                                      |             |
|------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Major H. R. Cayzer (C.)                              | 11,884      |
| Sir Henry Lawson (L.)                                | 9,763—2,121 |
| Col. Leslie Wilson's majority in December was 5,867. |             |

### YEOVIL.

|                                                                |             |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Major G. F. Davies (C.)                                        | 13,205      |
| Mr. W. T. Kelly (Lab.)                                         | 8,140—5,065 |
| Lt.-Colonel C. Waley Cohen (L.)                                | 7,024       |
| Colonel Herbert's (C.) majority in the last election was 5,887 |             |

### RUTLAND AND STAMFORD.

|                                                                 |             |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Mr. N. W. Smith-Carington (C.)                                  | 11,196      |
| Mr. A. Sells (Lab.)                                             | 8,406—2,790 |
| Mr. C. H. Dixon's (C.) majority in the last election was 3,042. |             |

### CHANGES OF THE BY-ELECTIONS.

| GAINS.                | LOSSES.               |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Lib.—Willesden, E.    | Cons.—Willesden E.    |
| Anglesey.             | Liverpool, Edge Hill. |
| Tiverton.             | Mitcham.              |
| Lab.—Mitcham.         | Tiverton.             |
| Liverpool, Edge Hill. | N. Lib.—Berwick.      |
| Cons.—Berwick.        | Ind.—Anglesey.        |

Only two election petitions were presented. That at Berwick, as shown above, led to the unseating of the member; while in North East Derbyshire, Mr. Frank Lee's majority (Labour) was on scrutiny increased from five to fifteen.



## Ministers and Parliament in 1923

As a result of the General Election the strength of the various parties in the several parts of the United Kingdom was apportioned as under:—

|                              | Conservative. | Independent Liberal. | National Liberal. | Labour.    | Others.  | Total.     |
|------------------------------|---------------|----------------------|-------------------|------------|----------|------------|
| <b>ENGLAND (492 Seats)</b>   |               |                      |                   |            |          |            |
| London . . . . .             | 44            | 3                    | 6                 | 9          | —        | 62         |
| Boroughs . . . . .           | 112           | 19                   | 14                | 47         | 1        | 193        |
| Counties . . . . .           | 154           | 23                   | 12                | 39         | 2        | 230        |
| Universities . . . . .       | 5             | —                    | 1                 | —          | 1        | 7          |
| <b>WALES (36 Seats)</b>      |               |                      |                   |            |          |            |
| Boroughs . . . . .           | 4             | —                    | 2                 | 5          | —        | 11         |
| Counties . . . . .           | 2             | 3                    | 5                 | 13         | 1        | 24         |
| University . . . . .         | —             | —                    | 1                 | —          | —        | 1          |
| <b>SCOTLAND (74 Seats)</b>   |               |                      |                   |            |          |            |
| Boroughs . . . . .           | 8             | 5                    | 3                 | 16         | 1        | 33         |
| Counties . . . . .           | 5             | 10                   | 9                 | 13         | 1        | 38         |
| Universities . . . . .       | 2             | 1                    | —                 | —          | —        | 3          |
| <b>N. IRELAND (13 seats)</b> |               |                      |                   |            |          |            |
| Boroughs . . . . .           | 4             | —                    | —                 | —          | —        | 4          |
| Counties . . . . .           | 6             | —                    | —                 | —          | —        | 6          |
| Universities . . . . .       | 1             | —                    | —                 | —          | 2        | 3          |
|                              | <b>347</b>    | <b>64</b>            | <b>53</b>         | <b>142</b> | <b>9</b> | <b>615</b> |

### Liberal Reunion.

One of the first effects of the break up of the Coalition Government was to set going a movement for the reunion of the Liberal parties. Mr. Lloyd George, in November, 1922, in reply to Mr. George Lambert, said he would be willing at any time to discuss the matter either with the Leaders or at a general meeting of Liberals, and would interpose no personal obstacle in the way of Liberal reunion. Mr. Asquith, also in answer to Mr. Lambert, said he regarded a united Liberal party, pursuing Liberal policy on Liberal lines, as a vital necessity to the State. He would place no obstacle in the way of its attainment. So far as the House of Commons was concerned the most promising road would appear to be by co-operation in debate and in the division lobby.

Little, however, was done upon that. Shortly before the opening of Parliament the question arose again in relation to the Liberal leadership in the House of Lords in succession to the Marquess of Crewe, who had become Ambassador to Paris. For a time it seemed likely that each wing of the party would choose

a leader, but in the end Viscount Grey of Falloden was accepted by all. In the Commons an amendment to the Address on the position in the Ruhr was likewise agreed to by both wings. This was followed by a resolution signed by 70 Liberal members, Independent and National, declaring reunion to be clamantly demanded in the general public interest. A few days later (March 2nd), Mr. Lloyd George, at Edinburgh, again urged that those responsible for the leadership of Liberalism of all sections should come together frankly to consult. As far as he was concerned, he declared, there was no question of leadership. He neither claimed, sought, nor desired leadership, but was willing to follow any leader who possessed the necessary vision, resolution, wisdom, courage and inspiration to lead the nation.

Sir John Simon, who had become Liberal leader in the House of Commons, replied two days later that Liberal reunion would not be suddenly achieved by some dramatic gesture or some secret conclave. Unity would come "by sincere Liberals, without regard to the past, working and fighting for the same thing and voting in the same lobby." That followed the line of Mr. Asquith's letter to Mr. Lambert and was the key to the subsequent attitude of Independent Liberalism. A difficulty was that some National Liberals, bound, it was assumed, by election pledges, steadily voted with the Conservatives, although others joined with the Independent Liberals. Mr. Asquith, at Cambridge, on March 7, quoted figures showing that, of the National Liberal members in the House, 26 had voted more often with the Government than with the Opposition, seven had voted an equal number of times with and against the Government, and fourteen had voted more often with the Liberals than with the Government. He asked if reunion was being looked upon as a stepping stone to a Centre Party. In such a party there was no place for him. That was followed by the publication of a letter from Mr. Lloyd George to Major Entwistle affirming that the idea of a Centre Party was rejected by Liberal Ministers in the Coalition in March, 1920, and that they still adhered to the decision. Two days afterwards he again appealed in a speech for consultation. The Leeds Liberal Federation invited both Mr. Asquith and Mr. Lloyd George to be their guests at a luncheon—Mr. Lloyd George accepted but Mr. Asquith declined, and the function was abandoned. Thus the matter remained, though it was constantly referred to by both wings. When Mr. Bonar Law resigned the Premiership, Mr. Lloyd George urged that Liberal reunion had become more necessary than ever, and that it was also easier than ever. The National Liberal Federation at Buxton, May 30, passed a resolution of confidence in Mr. Asquith as leader, declaring against coalition with Conservatives on the formation of a Centre Party, and urging all Liberals to co-operate in restoring Liberalism to its old position of authority

National Liberal leaders in London decided to support the Independent Liberal candidate at Berwick, but the local members of the party dissented and supported the Conservative, who was returned. In the Tiverton division, both wings of Liberalism supported Mr. F. D. Acland, who secured election. Capt. Arthur Evans, who was returned at the General Election for Leicester East as a National Liberal, formally crossed the floor of the House and joined the Conservative party, and there was a suggestion that one or two others might follow his example. There the matter, however, stood at the adjournment.

Among the minor incidents of the Session it may be noted that on April 10th the Government were defeated (145 votes to 138) on a question relating to the initial rate of salary for ex-temporary clerks appointed to permanent posts in the Civil Service. On the following day the House was dissatisfied with the way the Government treated the matter, great uproar prevailed, the "Red Flag" was sung, and finally, after adjourning the House for an hour, the Speaker adjourned it for the day. On the day after the matter was settled by the Government specially referring the question at issue to a Committee already inquiring into another branch of the subject for their immediate consideration. Meanwhile at least two Parliamentary days had been lost to the House. The suspension of four members on June 27th, Messrs. Maxton, Wheatley, Stephen and Buchanan, was the occasion of a great scene, which arose out of the fact that during a debate on the Scottish Estimates Mr. Maxton described the withdrawal of grants in aid for the supply of milk to necessitous mothers as murder, and directly charged Sir Frederick Banbury with being a murderer. Refusing to withdraw, he was suspended, and so also were Messrs. Wheatley, Stephen and Buchanan, who adopted the phrase in turn and refused to withdraw it. This led to much discussion privately as to the incompleteness of the Standing Order intended to govern such matters. On July 31st Mr. Baldwin moved to terminate the suspension, which had then lasted about five weeks.

### **The Dissolution of Parliament.**

[Parliament reassembled on November 13th in circumstances little anticipated at the adjournment in August. During the recess Mr. Baldwin became more and more impressed by the state of unemployment and the necessity for drastic measures. Speaking at Plymouth on October 25th he declared for protection for the home markets, against the dumping of goods produced by countries with depreciated exchanges or under-paid labour. In later speeches he announced that no tax as to wheat, meat, butter, cheese or eggs was proposed. He considered himself, however, bound by Mr. Bonar Law's pledge to make no change in fiscal policy during the existing Parliament. It was at once recognised an early

appeal to the country was in contemplation, but it was not expected to take place till January. Mr. Baldwin, however, decided for an immediate election, and on the eve of the resumed Session it became known that the date would be December 6th. Mr. Lloyd George had just returned from his visit to the United States and Canada, and one of the first effects was the reunion of the two wings of the Liberal Party under Mr. Asquith's leadership. In the House, Mr. Ramsay Macdonald promptly challenged the policy of the Government, his motion, which was accepted as a Vote of Censure, being defeated by a majority of 95. Parliament was prorogued on November 16th. The King's Speech referred to the profound anxiety with which the Government regarded the economic conditions of Europe. Notwithstanding all efforts to stimulate trade and alleviate distress, "the circumstances of large numbers of our fellow citizens" remained "deplorable," and Ministers were convinced that from "the safeguarding and development of the home market" alone could permanent improvement be expected. So ended the Parliament elected on November 15th, 1922. The results of the General Election will be found at the beginning of the Year Book.—EDITORS, B.D.Y.B.]

### THE IRISH FREE STATE ELECTIONS.

The General Election in Southern Ireland in August was awaited with a certain amount of anxiety. Some time previously the Republicans had abandoned the long-continued and wholly disastrous military campaign, but they were still active politically, and on August 15th, the very eve of the election, Mr. de Valera was arrested at Ennis when addressing a Sinn Fein meeting. The appeal to the constituencies resulted as follows:—

|                        |     |
|------------------------|-----|
| Government . . . . .   | 63  |
| Republican . . . . .   | 44  |
| Independents . . . . . | 16  |
| Labour . . . . .       | 15  |
| Farmers . . . . .      | 15  |
| Total . . . . .        | 153 |

A statement issued by President Cosgrave's Government said that the election had shown the country to be massed behind the Treaty and hostile to any renewal of unconstitutional agitation. This was true, but the strength of the Republican party was surprisingly great, and their spirit was shown by the despatch of a representative to Geneva to protest against the admission of a Free State member to the League of Nations. If the Republicans could take their seats in the Dail, the Cosgrave Government would obviously live only on sufferance; as, however, the Republicans cannot take the oath of loyalty they are debarred, and, consequently, nearly a third of Southern Ireland is disfranchised so far as Parliament is concerned, whilst the Government are assured of a working majority of 17.

# The Navy and Army, 1923

By E. CHARLES VIVIAN.

*Author of "The British Army from Within," "A History of Aeronautics," &c.*

## THE NAVY.

THE story of the year for the senior service is, from the point of view of the service itself, no pleasant one. Under the new Admiralty policy, based on the Washington Agreement, practically all the capital ships, which according to the terms of the Agreement are to be scrapped, have already been sold for breaking up, and in many cases their destruction is virtually complete. The taxpayer has derived immediate benefit—so far as provision for the Naval Estimates is in question—and the hurry for reduction in taxation is evident from the fact that these economies, involving the breaking up of seventeen splendid capital ships, were accomplished while yet the Washington Agreement waited completion by the Great Powers concerned in its framing. It is worth noting that the British Empire alone took such a risk, just as it alone, apparently, intends to pay its war debts.

The gross Navy Estimates for 1923-24, amounting to nearly sixty-one and a half millions, show a reduction of about eight millions compared with those of the preceding year; net estimates amount to fifty-eight millions, compared with over sixty-four millions for the preceding year. But, when the Estimates were presented, the only just method of comparison was with the Estimates of the two preceding years, and by this comparison the reduction was over 33 per cent. for gross Estimates and 30 per cent. in the net Estimates. As pointed out by the First Lord, Mr. Amery, this comparison is rendered just by the fact that the 1922-23 Estimates marked what would have been the lowest point reached by the Navy Estimates in our generation, had it not been for the Washington Agreement and its effects. But for this the policy of replacement would, in spite of every economy, have forced up our Estimates by from fifteen to twenty millions higher than those of 1922-23.

The bald figures tell little of the actual effect on the Navy itself, but details, as presented by the First Lord in his statement to the House of Commons, show how the senior service has been cut down. The Fleet personnel has been reduced by 20,000 officers and men; dockyard personnel has undergone reduction to the extent of 10,000 men, and seventeen capital ships have gone to the breakers' yards. Reserves of ammunition, of fuel, and of stores have been cut down to the very lowest limit compatible with safety, while expenditure which, from a purely naval point of view, ought to be embarked on at once, has been spread



out over long periods. The Navy has been brought to its irreducible minimum of a one-power standard, the ultimate reduction compatible with any degree of security.

Present capital ship strength consists of twenty-two completed ships and two laid down for building; on the completion of these two new vessels, four years hence, four of the present capital ships will be scrapped. The two new ships are each of thirty-five thousand tons, and, with the exception of the *Hood*, they will form the only post-Jutland vessels in the Fleet. The United States fleet contains three such vessels, and the Japanese fleet two. In ships of over thirty thousand tons, Great Britain has one, the United States has ten, and Japan has six. Including the Dominion Navies, Great Britain has fifty completed cruisers and light cruisers, while the United States has twenty completed and four building. Of aircraft-carriers, the British total is seven, as against three for the United States. In torpedo destroyers and flotilla leaders, the British strength, inclusive of the Dominion Navies, is 201, compared with 316 on the part of the United States, and our submarine strength consists of sixty-seven, including the Dominions, against ninety-nine built and twenty-nine building in the U.S.A. British superiority lies in cruisers and light cruisers alone, and in the other items of the fleet there is marked inferiority.

The vital figure, however, that of personnel, defines relative strengths still more clearly. Exclusive of coastguards, the British naval strength provided for is 99,500 officers and men; the total for the United States navy is 116,400. The Estimates of the two countries, allowing for the rate of exchange, show that the United States is spending some eighteen millions sterling more than Great Britain on the year's provision for the Navy.

An apparent rather than real reduction occurs in connection with the Coastguard Service, which has been transferred from Admiralty control to that of the Board of Trade. The present distribution of the Coastguard Service is 352 for coastal wireless services, 935 for life-saving service, and 450 as preventive men under the Customs Department—a saving of some 1,200 men.

The vote in respect of scientific services shows, justifiably, a very small reduction compared with that of the preceding year. The greater part of this vote is devoted to research and experiment, and one of the outstanding lessons of the war was that of the development of this side of naval organisation. At present the number of scientific problems calling for solution is very great, and at the same time is found to be on the increase, while the limitation of staff restricts research to the most urgent of the problems presented. A scheme has been put forward for the pooling of all scientific staffs employed by the Admiralty, with a view to a better meeting of requirements in this direction with the minimum staff allowed.

## The Navy and Army, 1923

The subjoined abstract of Naval Estimates, with the figures for the year 1922-23 appended for purposes of comparison, is as issued in the official White Paper giving full details of the Estimates themselves :—

### ABSTRACT OF THE NAVY ESTIMATES.

The following is an abstract of the Navy Estimates for 1923-24 with the figures for 1922-23 :—

|                                     |                                                                         | Estimates 1923-1924. |                   | Estimates 1922-1923. |                   |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|----------------------|-------------------|
|                                     |                                                                         | Gross Estimate.      | Net Estimate.     | Gross Estimate.      | Net Estimate.     |
|                                     |                                                                         |                      | Maximum Numbers.  |                      | Maximum Numbers.  |
| <b>I.—NUMBERS.</b>                  |                                                                         |                      |                   |                      |                   |
| A.                                  | Number of Officers, Seamen, Boys, and Royal Marines                     | 99,500               | 99,500            | 118,500              | 118,500           |
|                                     | Number of Coast Guard and Marine Police                                 | 1,423                | 1,423             | 2,900                | 2,900             |
| <b>II.—EFFECTIVE SERVICES.</b>      |                                                                         |                      |                   |                      |                   |
|                                     |                                                                         | £                    | £                 | £                    | £                 |
| 1                                   | Wages, &c., of Officers, Seamen and Boys, Coast Guard and Royal Marines | 14,116,420           | 14,055,700        | 15,910,750           | 15,856,000        |
| 2                                   | Victualling and Clothing for the Navy                                   | 5,766,043            | 4,742,500         | 7,082,739            | 5,790,000         |
| 3                                   | Medical Establishments and Services                                     | 543,538              | 516,000           | 543,917              | 522,000           |
| 4                                   | Civilians employed on Fleet Services                                    | 196,223              | 194,900           | 294,929              | 292,100           |
| 5                                   | Educational Services                                                    | 399,949              | 353,000           | 451,645              | 411,000           |
| 6                                   | Scientific Services                                                     | 501,996              | 435,800           | 524,365              | 446,500           |
| 7                                   | Royal Naval Reserves                                                    | 580,842              | 572,800           | 543,915              | 543,300           |
| 8                                   | Shipbuilding, Repairs, Maintenance, &c.                                 |                      |                   |                      |                   |
|                                     | Section I.—Personnel                                                    | 6,761,010            | 6,694,000         | 8,092,603            | 7,680,100         |
|                                     | Section II.—Materiel                                                    | 7,618,200            | 5,988,200         | 9,558,200            | 7,263,700         |
|                                     | Section III.—Contract Work                                              | 5,130,460            | 5,031,450         | 3,357,015            | 3,334,500         |
| 9                                   | Naval Armaments                                                         | 5,493,297            | 5,341,900         | 5,116,793            | 5,064,500         |
| 10                                  | Works, Buildings, and Repairs at Home and Abroad                        | 3,907,850            | 3,832,550         | 4,348,000            | 4,273,000         |
| 11                                  | Miscellaneous Effective Services                                        | 1,131,600            | 1,059,000         | 1,993,699            | 1,911,900         |
| 12                                  | Admiralty Office                                                        | 1,284,010            | 1,280,400         | 1,424,800            | 1,420,800         |
|                                     | <b>TOTAL EFFECTIVE SERVICES.</b>                                        | <b>53,431,438</b>    | <b>50,102,100</b> | <b>59,243,370</b>    | <b>54,719,400</b> |
| <b>III.—NON-EFFECTIVE SERVICES.</b> |                                                                         |                      |                   |                      |                   |
| 13                                  | Non-Effective Services (Naval and Marine)—Officers                      | 2,866,523            | 2,844,900         | 3,636,028            | 3,606,600         |
| 14                                  | Non-Effective Services (Naval and Marine)—Men                           | 4,310,790            | 4,260,800         | 5,562,020            | 5,522,600         |
| 15                                  | Civil Superannuation, Compensation Allowances and Gratuities            | 792,414              | 792,200           | 1,035,239            | 1,035,000         |
|                                     | <b>TOTAL NON-EFFECTIVE SERVICES</b>                                     | <b>7,969,727</b>     | <b>7,897,900</b>  | <b>10,233,287</b>    | <b>10,164,300</b> |
|                                     | <b>GRAND TOTAL</b>                                                      | <b>61,401,165</b>    | <b>58,000,000</b> | <b>69,476,657</b>    | <b>64,883,700</b> |

**NET DECREASE** . . . . . £6,883,700.

(NOTE.—The Decrease on Gross Expenditure is £8,075,492.)

|                                |                        |                              |                                    |                                                                                 |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Admiralty,<br>27th Feb., 1923. | L. S. AMERY<br>BEATTY. | H. F. OLIVER<br>F. L. FIELD. | ALGERNON D. BOYLE.<br>ROGER KEYES. | C. FULLER.<br>LINLITHGOW.<br><br>B. EYRES MONSELL } Secretaries.<br>O. MURRAY } |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

### The Singapore Base.

The construction of a naval base, capable of accommodating capital ships, at Singapore constitutes the only noteworthy extension of naval interests in the policy under which the 1923-24 Estimates were framed. The full cost of constructing this base is estimated as something over ten million sterling. "There is no reason," said the First Lord in connection with the scheme,

“to believe that the estimate of 10½ millions need be exceeded. It will not be a base of the first magnitude.”

The need for such a base is patent. While at such a distance from Japanese ports as to constitute no threat to Japanese interests, the Singapore base, affording accommodation for British capital ships, will cover the approaches to India, protect the oilfields of Burma, and flank the lines of approach to Australia and New Zealand. Standing as a centre of action for the Pacific possessions of the Empire, this base—again to quote Mr. Amery—forms “the soundest and most economical way of ensuring the defence of the Empire.”

The need for such a base becomes apparent when it is considered that, under the Washington Agreement, Great Britain is precluded from any further development of Hong Kong—a zone of non-action, extending westward to the 110th meridian, was set up by the Conference, and Hong-Kong, the only other base capable of extension, falls within the zone. At the present time, neither at Hong-Kong nor anywhere else in Eastern waters, is there a British naval base capable of accommodating a first-class battleship, while for the defence of British interests in the East, for the safeguarding of our commerce, some base where the fleet could put in for repairs and refitting is an absolute necessity. The Singapore base, when completed, will include a graving dock capable of holding the biggest modern capital ships; it will probably be equipped with a floating dock, and certainly will include workshops, stores of reserve ammunition, and all the other equipment of a good-sized base on which the Fleet can work if the necessity should arise. At the same time the development of this plan is entirely in accordance with the present general policy of cutting down armaments to the utmost limit compatible with safety. It is in no sense contrary to the spirit of the Washington Agreement, but aims simply at securing for the Fleet, now so much reduced, free mobility, that in the Pacific as elsewhere the seas may be kept free for trade and for communications between the Mother Country and other parts of the Empire.

The establishment of this base has aroused considerable controversy, the allegation being put forward that it is contrary to the policy of retrenchment which should follow on the war period, and is provocative to Japan, and in some measure to the United States as well, as signifying an attempt to start another race for naval supremacy. But the wider view, the soundest argument of all in regard to the plan, was well stated by the First Lord of the Admiralty at the Academy banquet in May:

“Even more,” said Mr. Amery, “do we need the forward view when we consider the ultimate foundations of our naval power. The defence of an Empire, spread over all the seas of the world, cannot be sustained indefinitely by one small island in the North Sea. It must depend upon the co-operation of all the partner

States of our Oceanic Commonwealth and upon the full development of the resources and man-power of that Commonwealth as a whole. It is to the younger navies of the Empire, based upon the strong and vigorous national life of great and growing communities, linked with ours in the most intimate unity of tradition and thought and training, that we must look in the future, as well as to that old parent Navy of imperishable past renown, but also of unquenchable youth and vigour."

One of the big items of expenditure planned is that of provision of oil-fuel tanks, in respect of which nearly a million sterling is set aside. Extensions in this direction are to be made at Glasgow, Malta, Aden, Ceylon, Rangoon, and Singapore—all on the trade route to the East. Under the present one-power standard, the Fleet cannot be divided up, and it is essential that it should be in a position to move rapidly to any part of the world where it is required. The Eastern route is the most important of all, and, purely as a defensive measure, it is essential that fuelling bases should be built up to a standard consistent with post-war needs.

### Naval Activities.

The withdrawal of the South American squadron, in accordance with present policy, was found detrimental to British interests in South America, and in consequence of this, a series of naval visits to South American ports was inaugurated with the cruise of the *Hood* and *Repulse* to Brazil, an experiment which demonstrated the peace value of the Navy, both commercially and politically. As alternative to this series of cruises, it is hoped eventually to re-institute the South American squadron as of greater significance and commercial value. At the Imperial Conference an Empire cruise was decided on, the *Hood* and the *Repulse* with a squadron of modern light cruisers visiting South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, British Columbia and Eastern Canada.

The visit of the light cruiser *Caledon* to the port of Memel during disturbances there, and the sloop patrol of the Murmansk fishery, together with patrols in Irish waters, constitute the main activities in European waters. Weather conditions necessitated the withdrawal of the sloop patrol of the Murmansk fisheries up to the end of March, 1923, but plans have been made for the maintenance of this patrol throughout the winter months in future.

In the Red Sea and Persian Gulf a recrudescence of slave-running has engaged the attention of H.M. ships in that locality. Two dhows engaged in the traffic were captured, and thirty-four slaves released in the period under review.

### Bases Closed.

In Ireland the naval bases of Kingstown and Queenstown have been closed, and the Haulbowline dockyard has been transferred to the control of the Irish Free State. In the Far

East, consequent on the terms of the Washington Agreement, the dockyard at Wei-Hai-Wei has been closed, and negotiations are proceeding for the return of Wei-Hai-Wei to China. It is intended, in future, to use this port only for purposes of health recruitment, so far as the Navy is concerned. Further, as it is considered no longer necessary to retain Ascension for strategic uses, the island has been annexed to St. Helena under the Colonial Office. It was formerly administered by the Admiralty practically as if it had been a ship in commission in distant waters.

### **Present Policy.**

To reduce the establishment of the Navy to the extreme limit compatible with safety is the policy pursued to-day; it is justified only by the fact—if fact it be—that the whole world is sick of war and the threat of war, and that in addition to this no nation can afford armed conflict. Since no other justification for such a policy of retrenchment on this scale can be found, it seems that the present policy cannot be pursued indefinitely. Assuming that the Washington Agreement remains effective so far as the signatories to that Agreement are concerned, there remain other nations outside the scope of the Agreement—ineffective for the present, beyond question, in the matter of sea power, yet naval policy should concern itself with to-morrow equally with to-day. And, in viewing this “reduction to the extreme limit compatible with safety,” there is but one reassuring factor in the situation—the establishment of a naval base at Singapore.

### **THE ARMY.**

Army Estimates for 1923–24, compared with those of the preceding year, show a diminution of just over ten millions sterling. In this is involved a reduction in personnel of 55,000 men, and, as in the case of the Navy, cutting down has been carried to the very limit compatible with safety. As emphasised by the Under-Secretary of War (then Lieut.-Col. Guinness), the British Army has never been maintained on a scale comparable with that of continental armies; its strength has been regulated by the task of keeping the borders of the Empire and maintaining order, responsibilities which remain practically undiminished. To these normal tasks is now added the business of mandated territories in three different continents, and thus the risks are greater than at any pre-war period, while the size of the Army has been reduced. There were, at the beginning of the year 1923, thirty-one thousand troops serving in Germany, in Turkey, and in Mesopotamia. The progress of events has made it possible to effect reductions in the strength in the Near East, but still there remain these commitments extra to the normal tasks of the Army, and this present maximum retrenchment of the land forces is only possible while the world remains exhausted by war. Even so, it is



confessed, retrenchment has gone near the danger line. Actual cuts consist of the extinction of twenty-one battalions of infantry, nine regiments of cavalry, and forty-nine batteries of horse and field artillery—this as compared with pre-war strength. The only compensation lies in the evacuation of the Irish Free State by all British troops, and this, in comparison with the rest of the Army's world-wide task, is a very small one.

The position, then, of the Army at present is very much like that of the Navy, in that both forces are maintained at the equivalent of a one-power standard. This, by comparison of actual strength with that of other nations, is quite clear in the case of the Navy; in the case of the Army it is best expressed by saying that British military strength is calculated in view of certain standing risks to the Empire, in Asia and elsewhere, with which it is the normal function of the Regular Army to deal. The present establishment enables the Regular Forces to deal with these risks if they materialise only one at a time; if more than one risk suddenly materialised, then the Army is admittedly not strong enough to cope with the situation.

### The Reserve Forces.

The "four years special service" method of enlistment, current at the end of the war, produces its fruits this year, since the great majority of the men enlisted under this system are now time-expired, and, at the beginning of the financial year, the Army was some twelve thousand short of establishment strength. Recruiting, however, has been and still is stimulated by the great amount of unemployment prevailing; the intake for normal engagements of service in the year 1922-23 was thirty-nine thousand recruits, against an average of twenty-nine thousand in pre-war years, and there is every probability of this rate maintaining itself well into the winter of 1923-24, in which case the exodus of the four years special short-service class will be compensated, and the present establishment brought up to strength. Meanwhile, pending the growth of adequate reserves, ten thousand men of war training are being enlisted into Class D of the reserve, and the bare announcement of this measure has been sufficient to fill the class as desired. It is different, however, in the case of the attempt to secure eight thousand tradesmen, to be taken directly into the Army Reserve. Although the scheme had been in force for two years in April of 1923, only 5,400 had been secured.

### Mobilisation.

In 1914, six infantry and one and a half cavalry divisions were mobilised for service in ten days, and placed in France—the feat is one which will not soon be forgotten. The state of the Army now, as compared with then, may best be judged from the confession of the Under-Secretary for War that only one infantry

division could be mobilised immediately from existing resources and without special enlistment, while, in order to place in the field one cavalry and four infantry divisions—two thirds of the total mobilised in ten days in 1914—**four months** would be required. This for the present, owing to the enormous depletion of the reserve forces. As these fill up, the speed of possible mobilisation must of necessity increase, but it is obviously a slow process, this of filling the ranks of the reserve, apart from such special measures as may be taken.

### Commissioned Strength.

The Geddes axe fell with considerable effect on the commissioned ranks of the Army. In consequence there has been a reluctance on the part of parents to consider the Army as a career for their sons, and the War Department finds serious difficulty in filling the cadet ranks at Sandhurst, which stood, at the beginning of 1923, eighty-four short of its normal establishment. In this connection the need for an efficient establishment of commissioned ranks is far greater than that of continental armies, for the British Army undertakes little wars in every type of country, under a variety of conditions, which fact calls for qualities of leadership far more than do the tasks of continental armies. In addition to this the war has shown that there must be available a thoroughly efficient commissioned force as framework on which to build the material for a great national effort should the need for this again arise.

Certain economies have been effected in the cost of personnel, of which the effects will be felt more in future than in the present year. In both cavalry and infantry a Headquarter wing has been added as part of the organisation, to include the administrative personnel, and it is anticipated that in this way the training of companies and squadrons in peace, and their handling in war, will be simplified. The old depots for cavalry, six in number, have been abolished, and Canterbury has been constituted a central cavalry depot; similarly, eleven artillery depots have been concentrated in one single depot at Woolwich.

### The Machinery of War.

Research and experiment, in spite of retrenchment in every direction, costs between £600,000 and £700,000 a year, and, large though this sum may seem as compared with the total of the Army Estimates, it is barely large enough, for, with the cutting down of numerical strength, it becomes more than ever necessary to get the maximum benefit of scientific research directed to the improvement of war material. The Great War proved the necessity for development of this branch, and in it, far too often, knowledge was bought at a very high cost of human life, owing to the slackness

of pre-war experiment. As in the case of the Navy, and still more of the Air Force, the funds for research are spent with a view to getting the best type of armament, in order that the mass production demanded by war conditions may be directed to most effective ends at the outset, rather than left to evolve itself, as in the case of the last war, by means of the painful experience of field service and the mistakes due to neglect of research in time of peace.

As an instance of this, the development of the tank stands out sharply. When the Armistice was signed, the latest pattern of tank had a speed of eight miles per hour, and an endurance of 150 miles. The present latest model has a speed of twenty-five miles per hour, and an endurance of a thousand miles on the track, and experiments are being conducted to see if it is possible to exceed even these figures. The year 1923-24 will see the Tank Battalion equipped throughout with a new light tank, fruit of the researches of the preceding year, and embodying all that is so far best in tank design.

### **Transport Service.**

An important modification of the auxiliary services is that of substituting mechanical for horse wagon transport in divisional training. This, in case of mobilisation, will involve the provision of a large number of thirty-hundredweight lorries—the best size for active service work, so far as the majority of Army purposes are concerned. In order to encourage the manufacture of suitable types, and to ensure the existence in this country of a good number of 30 cwt. vehicles in commercial use, a subsidy payment of £40 per lorry is now being offered to builders who comply with War Office specification in the type they produce.

This substitution is based on the experience of the recent war, and, in view of the climatic and other disadvantages under which the British Army is called on to perform its tasks, is one which, although involving a fairly high initial expenditure, is an absolute necessity in view of present-day conditions, while eventually it will prove a far more economical form of service than the old-time horse transport. How far mechanical transport can be adapted to Artillery requirements yet remains to be seen.

### **Technical Services.**

In view of the great extension of the technical side of Army service, skilled craftsmen, for several years past, have been very difficult to secure. The Army Report says the difficulty is mainly due to the idea that service in the Army may militate against re-entry into a trade on return to civil life. Hence, on increasing need, a school has been established at Blandford for the training of skilled workmen necessary to maintain technical branches and units at strength. The school is planned for the accommodation of a thousand boys, to enter at the age of 14, and about one-third

of this number are expected to be in training by the end of 1923.

Another feature of this nature consists in the fitting of time-expired men for civilian life, and to this end vocational training centres have been established at Catterick and Hounslow with a view to training instructors, who will return to their units competent to give instruction in bricklaying, upholstery, market gardening, and other trades which will render a man a useful citizen when he returns to civil life. Courses in selected subjects are in future to be given to men nearing the period of their engagement, in order to help them to start in industry, so that "the unemployed ex-service man" may no longer be conspicuous as one of the inevitable results of service with the Colours.

### Staff.

War Office costs, in comparison with the preceding year, have been cut down by nearly £300,000, and the Staff of Commands by about one-third of that figure. It is still noteworthy, however, that the pre-war staff of the War Office consisted of 174 officers, while to-day, with the Army itself reduced by some 55,000 men, there is a staff of 312 officers. The actual total of all ranks in the Army to-day is stated at 170,800, compared with a pre-war establishment of over 200,000. The increase of War Office staff is accounted for by the abnormal strength of the Intelligence branch, necessary in view of the European situation, and also by the task of reorganisation consequent on the reductions which have been made in strength.

### The Territorial Army.

While the Army Council have not seen fit to retain the old Militia battalions as a form of reserve strength, the Territorial Army, with a nominal strength of 8,000 officers and 172,000 other ranks, is to be maintained as a second line of defence. The foregoing is the strength when at full establishment; the actual available strength is in the neighbourhood of 6,000 officers and 130,000 other ranks, while there is also a Reserve of Officers numbering 4,000. The period of enlistment in the Territorial Forces is now four years, and, although many units are up to strength, certain districts are badly deficient of their full numbers. Especially is this the case in the London district; out of the twelve Territorial battalions noticeable as most under strength, six are in the London division. Against this must be set such examples as that of Lloyd's, which has formed a "Lloyd's Battery" of the Royal Field Artillery, which is not only up to full strength, but has a waiting list of candidates for enlistment.

One lesson of the war has been taken to heart in the constitution of the Territorial Forces, in which Air Defence formations have been developed. There are now two Air Defence brigades in London, and those joining them have undertaken to



[Photo by Russell]

Stanley Baldwin





come up for service in any national emergency, whether the Territorial Force is embodied as a whole or no. It is also intended that Voluntary Aid Detachments shall be developed into a permanent part of war organisation, in view of the valuable service they rendered in the last war.

### **The Army and the Air Force.**

Co-ordination of the Air Force and of the Army is still a matter of discussion, though the problems affecting both Services have been worked out in conference. Thus, in the case of Mesopotamia, the Air Force employed is supplied directly by the Air Council, while in other cases the distribution of the Air Force employed is a matter for the decision of the military Commander-in-Chief, in consultation with the R.A.F. command. In a general way it may be said that the military orders will define the task to be performed, and the method of performance will be left to the discretion of the Air Force command, while Air Force personnel will be subject to Air Force command and not to military law.

How such an arrangement will work remains to be seen; it may be enunciated as a general rule that any division of command, more especially such a division as makes the Air Force personnel subject to a different law from the strictly military law, militates against the efficiency of a force—it becomes a house divided against itself. Yet, while this stands as a general principle, it will take years to decide whether the totally different functions of the Air Force do not justify separate control and separate treatment—there were many arguments put forward on both sides when the Air Force was first separated from the two Senior services, and none of these arguments are settled yet. There are advocates in plenty on both sides. It may be that air work will be developed to such an extent as to cause it to eclipse mere ground action, but equally it may happen that intensified research and experiment along Army lines will drive the Air Force back to its original place as an adjunct controlled fully by Army chiefs. Of the two possibilities this seems to have more in its favour, but the problem is one which years of development alone can settle.

### **Recruiting.**

Recruiting in 1921, according to an Army Report issued in August, 1923, was affected by the unemployment dole and other forms of relief, which kept many men out of the Army. Of those who did seek to enlist, the general standard was poor, owing, largely, to the mode of life of many growing lads during the war. The standard is gradually improving and that of the recruits accepted is good. Their educational attainments are, however, distinctly inferior to those before the war. The number and percentage of recruits rejected in the year ending September 30th, 1921, were :—

|                        | Offered<br>Services. | Rejected. | Percentage<br>Rejected. |
|------------------------|----------------------|-----------|-------------------------|
| Eastern Command . . .  | 14,759               | 6,600     | 44.7                    |
| Irish Command . . .    | 7,182                | 1,940     | 27.0                    |
| London Zone . . .      | 22,164               | 12,600    | 56.8                    |
| Northern Command . . . | 17,406               | 7,042     | 40.5                    |
| Scottish Command . . . | 9,850                | 4,760     | 48.3                    |
| Southern Command . . . | 16,446               | 7,762     | 47.2                    |
| Western Command . . .  | 18,050               | 10,211    | 56.6                    |
| Channel Islands . . .  | 214                  | 106       | 49.5                    |
| Totals . . .           | 106,071              | 51,021    | 48.1                    |

### Imperial Defence Committee.

The following recommendations made by the National and Imperial Defence Committee it was announced in August had been adopted by the Government.

- (1) It is undesirable and impracticable to supersede the Ministerial heads of the three Fighting Services by making them subordinates of a Minister of Defence; the alternative plan for an amalgamation of the three Service Departments is equally impracticable.
- (2) On the other hand, the existing system of co-ordination by the Committee of Imperial Defence is not sufficient to secure full initiative and responsibility for defence as a whole and requires to be defined and strengthened.
- (3) Under the existing system the Committee of Imperial Defence, an advisory and consultative body, inquires into and makes recommendations in regard to the issues of defence policy and organisation which are brought before it. The power of initiative lies with the Government Departments and with the Prime Minister.
- (4) This system, though invaluable up to a point, does not make any authority except the Prime Minister, who can only devote a small part of his time and attention to defence questions, directly responsible for the initiation of a consistent line of policy directing the common action of the three or any two of the three Services, taking account of the reactions of three Services upon one another.
- (5) While, therefore, the existing system of departmental initiative will continue, the responsibility for the wider initiative referred to above in paragraph (4) will also rest with the Chairman of the Committee of Imperial Defence, acting under the general direction of the Committee of Imperial Defence and with the assistance of the three Chiefs of Staff.
- (6) In accordance with the terms of the Treasury Minute of May 4, 1904, constituting the Committee of Imperial Defence in its present form, the Committee of Imperial Defence will continue to consist of the Prime Minister, as President, with such other members as, having regard to the nature of the subject to be discussed, he may from time to time summon to assist him. In pursuance of a decision by the Prime Minister, the Committee places on record that the following should be members:—The Chairman (Deputy to the Prime Minister), the Secretary of State for War, the Secretary of State for Air, the First Lord of the Admiralty, the Chancellor of the Exchequer or the Financial Secretary, the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, the Secretary of State for India, the Chiefs of Staff of the three Fighting Services, the Permanent Secretary of the Treasury as head of the Civil Service. In addition to these, other British or Dominion Ministers of the Crown and other officials, or persons

having special qualifications, will be summoned as members by the President according to the nature of the business.

- (7) Among the functions of the Chairman of the Committee of Imperial Defence will be:—Assisted by the three Chiefs of Staff, as laid down in paragraph (5) above, to keep the defence situation as a whole constantly under review so as to ensure that defence preparations and plans and the expenditure thereupon, are co-ordinated and framed to meet policy, that full information as to the changing naval, military, and air situation may always be available to the Committee of Imperial Defence, and that resolutions as to the requisite action thereupon may be submitted for its consideration.
- (8) In addition to the functions of the Chiefs of Staff as advisers on questions of sea, land, or air policy respectively, to their own Board or Council, each of the three Chiefs of Staff will have an individual and collective responsibility for advising on defence policy as a whole, the three constituting, as it were, a Super-chief of a War Staff in Commission. In carrying out this function they will meet together for the discussion of questions which affect their joint responsibilities.
- (9) Questions relating to co-ordination of expenditure may be entertained by the Committee of Imperial Defence when referred to it by the Cabinet. The Committee (subject to any directions by the Cabinet) will consider such questions in the light of the general defence policy of the Government and of the strategical plans drawn up to give effect to that policy in time of war.
- (10) The Secretariat of the Committee of Imperial Defence will continue to act as liaison officers between the Chairman of the Committee and the Service Departments. The staff of the Committee will be strengthened by the addition of an Assistant Secretary to be nominated by the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the Secretary of State for Air, whose status will be identical with that of the three existing Assistant Secretaries nominated by the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the Secretary of State for War, the Secretary of State for India, and the First Lord of the Admiralty.
- (11) The Standing Defence Sub-Committee is suppressed, and its past proceedings will be merged into those of the Committee of Imperial Defence.

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## Aeronautics in 1923.

By C. G. GREY.

*Editor of "The Aeroplane."*

VERY remarkable progress has been made in all branches of aviation since the "British Dominions Year Book" was last published. In Service and Civil Aviation alike there has been very great activity, and numerous remarkable improvements have been made in Service and Civil aircraft and engines. All this has been the outward and visible sign of the consistent, if comparatively slow, progress to which reference is made in the opening sentence of this section of the last volume of the Year Book.

### **The R.A.F. Reserve.**

Towards the end of 1922 it became known that an R.A.F. Reserve of Officers was to be formed, which would in the event of war bring the R.A.F. up to something like a reasonable fighting strength at a few days' notice. During 1923 this R.A.F. Reserve actually came into being. Some hundreds of wartime pilots of the Air Force joined, and by the Autumn of 1923 a great many of them had been put through a course of flying, known officially as a Refresher Course, to find out whether they retained sufficient knowledge of and interest in aviation to make it worth while to give them proper Service training on war machines during 1924.

The Air Ministry's scheme for these refresher courses has been very sound indeed. Instead of taking former R.A.F. pilots who are now in civil life and sending them to a Service aerodrome under strictly Service conditions the Air Ministry selected four well-equipped aerodromes belonging to commercial firms and sent the Reserve officers there to fly under what practically amounts to civilian conditions. The four aerodromes selected were the De Havilland Company's aerodrome at Edgware, the Armstrong-Whitworth Company's aerodrome at Coventry, the Bristol Aeroplane Company's aerodrome at Filton, and the Beardmore Company's aerodrome near Glasgow. Thus Reserve pilots in almost any part of the country are enabled to reach their place of training with the least possible journey.

The idea of this scheme was firstly to enable a certain number of aerodromes owned by commercial firms to continue in existence, so that when the younger generation who have not served in the R.A.F. want to learn to fly, aerodromes and elementary training machines and instructors will be available for them. As these aerodromes and their staff and equipment are maintained by payment from the Government for the training and practice flying of the officers of the R.A.F. Reserve it is possible for them to receive civilian pupils who know nothing whatever about flying at prices which they could not possibly afford if the whole aerodrome had to be maintained out of the income from the new pupils.

Furthermore, the scheme has the advantage that as these are civilian aerodromes the Reserve officers who come up for their refresher courses can make their own arrangements with the firms as to attending for their flying at hours which will not interfere with their business, whereas if they had to do their flying at an R.A.F. station they would have to be there at certain definite hours in accord with the routine of the station. The whole scheme is now working beautifully and is evidence of the sound common-sense and ability with which the Royal Air Force is run. In due time, when a sufficient number of Reserve officers have passed their refresher courses, arrangements will be made for proper training with R.A.F. squadrons at active service stations, and then the Reserve officer will have to devote a certain period, lasting



a week or perhaps a month, to living under proper Service conditions as an officer of the Royal Air Force. In this respect the Reserve training for the R.A.F. operates in almost precisely the same way as does the training of the Army Militia.

### **Our New Air Minister.**

The change of Government in October, 1922 when Mr. Bonar Law succeeded Mr. Lloyd George necessitated a change in the Air Ministry. Much to everybody's surprise the Premier appointed to be Secretary of State for Air Sir Samuel Hoare, Bart., D.S.O., M.P. for Norwich. Sir Samuel had never had anything to do with aviation and naturally those who had little acquaintance with politics and much knowledge of flying protested as loudly as they could against what they considered the foolish appointment to so important a post of a gentleman who however distinguished he might be in other walks of life as a soldier and politician knew nothing whatever about aviation. Those with greater knowledge of the science of government argued that just as a soldier makes the worst possible War Minister so a person experienced in aviation would probably make the worst possible Air Minister. They argued that a man with a trained mind approaching a new subject without bias would undoubtedly obtain a truer view of the problems before him than a man who began with certain definite prejudices. This view proved to be perfectly correct.

Sir Samuel Hoare has since his appointment devoted himself to the study of aeronautical problems, and those who have had to deal with him both on the Service side and on the Civil Aviation side agree that his entire lack of bias and his trained business mind have been of the greatest value both to the Royal Air Force and to commercial flying.

At the same time His Grace the Duke of Sutherland was appointed Under-Secretary of State for Air, a post which entails particularly the control of Civil Aviation. Prior to his appointment the Duke of Sutherland had been for some time President of the Air League, an organisation which hopes some day to do for the Royal Air Force what the Navy League has done for the Navy in the past. His appointment has proved to be just as fortunate as the appointment of Sir Samuel Hoare. He has devoted himself wholeheartedly to furthering the interests of civil aviation, and he together with the Director of Civil Aviation Major-General Sir Sefton Brancker, K.C.B., have done a very great deal to place British commercial flying as much in front of that of other nations as is the British mercantile marine in front of the sea transport of other countries.

### **Building up the R.A.F.**

It will be remembered that ever since the Armistice the Chief of the Air Staff, Sir Hugh Trenchard, who was promoted to Air

Chief Marshal in 1922, thus making him of rank equivalent to that of a full General in the Army, has been concerned with building up a new Air Force on a sound foundation. There have been during 1923 various outcries in the press and in Parliament about the alleged insufficiency and inefficiency of the R.A.F. It has been said that the Air Force does but little flying and that it is utterly inadequate for the defence of this country. Those who have agitated so violently have not understood the problems involved in building up an adequate Air Force.

The position is briefly this. The pilots cannot fly unless their machines are kept in proper condition. The machines cannot be kept in proper condition unless the Air Force has a sufficient supply of specially trained mechanics and technical officers. A sufficient supply of such mechanics cannot be obtained unless there exist adequate training establishments and adequate barracks in which to house them.

The aircraftsman, as the air mechanic is now called, must of necessity be of a class superior to the average infantry soldier. He cannot of course be braver or better behaved, but he must be more intelligent. At the end of the war 1914-18, the mechanics of the Air Force were nearly all men unfit for infantry duties, but men with years of experience in mechanical trades. When the 300,000 men and 30,000 officers were demobilised practically all the best mechanics in the Air Force went back to their regular trades and the R.A.F. was left without enough skilled mechanics to maintain in proper order the machines which were on actual active service in Iraq in India in Egypt in Palestine and elsewhere. Consequently almost every competent mechanic had to be sent abroad, and in 1920 there cannot have been all told a thousand thoroughly trained aircraftsmen at all the R.A.F. stations in the British Isles. The Air Staff therefore set to work and built and equipped regular training stations for mechanics.

Young men with or without trades were enlisted and sent for training to Manston near Margate. A certain number of similar men were sent to the new training establishment at Halton near Aylesbury. But it was realised that grown men under a system of intensive training would never be as satisfactory as youths caught young and trained not merely as mechanics but as members of the Royal Air Force.

### **Aircraft Apprentices.**

Consequently very great and highly successful efforts were made to enlist boy mechanics as they were called and two special establishments were set up for their training, one at Halton and one at Cranwell where is also the R.A.F. Cadet College. During 1923 the designation of these boy mechanics was changed to that of aircraft apprentices. Halton was given over entirely to the training of aircraft apprentices, and what is known as the Boys'

Wing at Cranwell was retained for the same class of boy. All the training of grown men was turned over to the Manston School of Technical Training (Men) as it is called.

These aircraft apprentices have proved to be immensely successful. The first batch trained at Halton and Cranwell have during 1923 been sent out to various R.A.F. stations and squadrons, some at home and some on foreign service, and in every case the officers of the stations to which they have been sent are enthusiastic about the quality of aircraftmen thus produced. Almost invariably these boys are socially superior to the ordinary working mechanic and have been decently educated at secondary schools before joining the R.A.F.

Their education has been very carefully continued since they joined the R.A.F. so that their specialised training and their general education has progressed equally. Also they have acquired the true spirit of the Royal Air Force so that not only are they skilled mechanics and highly intelligent but they are intensely loyal to the Service and have learned to regard the R.A.F. as the be-all and end-all of their existence. Thus the Air Staff is building up as rapidly as possible what is practically a new class of the community, for these boys when they have served their time in the R.A.F. will come out each with a useful trade to his hand and with a much higher ideal of citizenship than is to be found in the ordinary workman who has had nothing but factory experience. Thus it is coming to pass that the Royal Air Force is being properly supplied with mechanics who are competent to keep Service aircraft in safe flying condition.

### Re-Equipment.

This task being fairly on its way to completion the Air Staff has during 1923 set about re-equipping the various stations and squadrons of the R.A.F. Hitherto practically all the money available has been expended on buildings and men. Now some of it is being spent on new machines.

Up to the present date all the squadrons on active service have been flying aged aeroplanes none of which are of designs produced since the war and very few of which as individual machines have been built since the war. Nearly all the work over the hills of the North-West Frontier of India has been done on standard type Bristol "Fighters," a machine which in 1917 and 1918 was undoubtedly the finest two-seater fighting aeroplane in the world. These machines first came into use at Easter 1916 and were actually designed in 1915 by Mr. Frank Barnwell of the Bristol Company. But it is evident that in 1923 such machines must be out of date.

In Iraq the aeroplanes most used have been the D.H.9a, a machine which was designed in 1915 by Captain Geoffrey de Havilland and was modified in 1917 so as to use the American "Liberty" engine. These machines with their American engines

have done nearly all the flying on the famous Cairo-Baghdad air mail route and they have done the bulk of the patrol work in Iraq. Also in Iraq there has been one squadron mounted on Sopwith "Snipe," a single-seater machine which was produced in 1917. There have been in Iraq a certain number of twin-engined Vickers "Vimy" machines, and in 1923 a considerable amount of troop transport work has been done by Vickers "Vernons," a modified form of "Vimy" fitted with a big passenger-carrying body in place of the ordinary bomb-carrying body of war time. The "Vernons" are in fact the only *post-bellum* aircraft used by the R.A.F. on active service.

On the home stations the elementary training is still done on 504K Avros with "Gnome" engines, a type of machine which was designed in 1912, slightly modified in 1914 and has been in use ever since as the R.A.F. standard training machine. The more advanced training at the home stations has been done on Bristol "Fighters," D.H.9as. and "Snipe." The only two seaplane stations belonging to the R.A.F., namely, the Navigation School at Calshot and the regular Seaplane Training Station at Lee-on-Solent, still use the old "F" type flying boats produced by the late Lieut.-Col. John Porte at Felixstowe about 1915-16, or else Fairey seaplanes which are modifications of the Fairey Aviation Company's designs of much about the same period. All the work of co-operating with the Army on manœuvres at home in the Autumn of 1923 has been done on Bristol "Fighters" and D.H.9as.

### The Fleet Air Arm.

The only branch of the Royal Air Force which has had any really new equipment up to this date is that which has become known during 1923 as the Fleet Air Arm. This is a portion of the sea-going side of the R.A.F. which has been definitely allocated to co-operate with the Fleet. Almost all the money which has been available during 1922-23 for the purchase of new machines has been allocated to this particular section. This, it should be noticed, is the full and complete reply to the charges made by certain politicians that the Air Ministry has consistently flouted the Admiralty's demand for aircraft and is neglecting the interests of the British Navy. The Fleet Air Arm has in fact more aeroplanes than it can possibly use.

The aeroplanes used for fleet co-operation are of various types. The older aircraft-carrying ships, officially known as "carriers," have only float seaplanes of the ordinary type, nearly all built by the Fairey Aviation Company, Limited. These did excellent service during the war and afterwards in Northern Russia, the Black Sea and the Caspian, and still later over Asia Minor during our argument with the Angora Turks. These machines are swung overboard with derricks and start off the water.

The later seaplane carriers, such as H.M.S. "Argus," have

large flat decks free from obstruction of any kind and from these the aeroplanes of the Fleet Air Arm start, and they are supposed to alight on these same decks on their return. A number of types of "deck-flying aeroplanes" as they are called have been produced for this purpose.

These are divided into three main classes. Firstly, "Fleet Spotters," which carry a pilot, an observer and a wireless operator. The duty of these machines is to spot for the guns of the Fleet, either in a fleet action or in a bombardment of an enemy coast. These machines also act as scouts for enemy ships and for submarines. Most of these have been built by A. V. Roe & Co., Ltd.

The second class are the "Torpedo Droppers." These carry as a rule a pilot and an observer, who also acts as the torpedo dropper and the gunner for the protection of the machine against attack by enemy aircraft. The majority of these have been built by the Blackburn Company of Leeds.

The third class are the "Deck-Flying Fighters." These are single-seater machines, analagous to what used to be called "scouts" during the War 1914-18, but they are specially designed to alight on the decks of carriers. Most of these machines have been built by the Fairey Aviation Company.

All these deck-fliers are built with special undercarriages designed to take the shock of alighting on a deck, which may be either rising or falling when they drop on to it. Also they all carry some form of flotation gear which will prevent them from sinking if they are compelled to come down in the sea, though not having floats like the older seaplanes they cannot get off the water if they once alight on it.

A number of other firms besides those mentioned have turned out experimental fleet-spotters, torpedo machines and fighters. The result is that a very large sum of money has been spent in the aggregate on experimental work and in the actual delivery of standardised aeroplanes for the Fleet Air Arm. In the meantime as already stated very little has been spent on new types for Army Co-operation or for the regular work of the R.A.F.; and still less has been spent on new equipment for the shore stations of the Coastal Area which are concerned with coast defence but are not a definite part of the Fleet Air Arm.

At the end of 1918 no country in the world was so far advanced in the design and construction of big sea-going multiple-engined flying boats as was Great Britain. To-day the Coastal Area stations are still using the old flying boats built in 1917-18, and no new orders for big flying boats have been placed for several years. Bearing these facts in mind, it is difficult to understand the attitude of those agitators who complain that the Air Ministry has neglected the needs of the Navy.



### **The R.A.F. Staff.**

Much has been done since the latter part of 1922 to increase the all-round efficiency of the R.A.F. by the work of the R.A.F. Staff College at Andover. This establishment was opened on April 4th, 1922, and the officers of the first course passed out about the middle of 1923. At the time of writing another course is now going through the College. A good deal was said at one time about the extravagance of the R.A.F. in providing itself with the luxury of a Staff College when it might have trained its staff officers with the Army Staff at Camberley.

As a matter of fact "The College" consists of wartime huts of the old Flying Training School on the aerodrome at Andover. Therefore no money at all has been spent on building the R.A.F. Staff College. Moreover none of the buildings of the Senior Services would be of use for the purpose, for the very good reason that the R.A.F. course comprises a good deal of practical flying and the College must therefore be located on an aerodrome. The R.A.F. Staff College does not even have its own mess, for the officers on the staff course share the Headquarters mess of the R.A.F. Group which is located at Andover.

One of the chief difficulties of the R.A.F. during the War 1914-18 was that it had no regular trained staff officers and consequently everything that is comprised within the meaning of "staff work" all the way from directing operations down to providing rations for the men was done in a haphazard and inefficient manner. The training which is now provided at the Staff College, the Commandant of which is Air Commodore H. R. M. Brooke-Popham, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., A.F.C., himself a graduate of the Army Staff College at Camberley and one of the earliest of British Army aviators, is such as to assure that the brain work of the R.A.F. will be as adequately done as is the work of flying and fighting.

### **R.A.F. Athletics.**

Not only was the efficiency of the R.A.F. greatly improved in Service matters during 1922-23, but the general tone of the Air Force has also progressed for the better. Nothing proves the spirit of a Service better than the interest which it takes in athletics, and during 1922-23 the R.A.F. has shown itself to be in many ways more than the equal of the Senior Services. Undoubtedly its greatest performance was in beating both the Navy and the Army at Rugby football. It has been generally admitted that there never has been a better Service team than that of the R.A.F. during the Winter, 1922-23.

### **R.A.F. Finance.**

The Air Force Estimates, which were introduced in March, 1923, indicated that the Government was beginning to realise the importance of the new First Line of Defence, and the way in which the

Estimates were received by the House showed that Members of Parliament truly represented the country in their appreciation of the importance of the Air Force. There is no doubt that if the Government had asked for double as much money for air defence they would have got it without objection.

Some idea of the distance which the Air Force still has to go before it can be regarded from the financial point of view as the First Line of Defence may be gathered from the fact that while the Navy Estimates of 1923-24 total £58,000,000 the Estimates for the Air Force (including Civil Aviation) only total £12,011,000, a miserably poor ration for a Service which is our First Line of Defence at home and our First Line of Attack abroad—in fact, the King's Premier Service. Nevertheless, the fact that the Navy was docked of £7,000,000 and that the Air Force was given an increase of £1,116,000 certainly indicates that the Government mind is moving in the right direction.

The value of the R.A.F. as an economiser was very neatly put in the debate on the Air Estimates by Sir Samuel Hoare, when, in referring to the handing over of Iraq to the R.A.F. instead of the Army, he said: "The problem that we are trying to solve is the problem of *control without occupation*."

If this problem can be solved it means that such places as Iraq, the North-West Frontier of India, and troublesome neighbours in Arabia and in various parts of Africa can be kept under control by a few aircraft without the enormous expense of expeditionary forces on the ground. But it must be remembered when we come to think of the next war that in a big war between two great Powers the only thing that wins the war and keeps it won is a soldier standing on his own feet in the heart of the enemy's country, and that therefore Army co-operation is at least as important a task of the Air Force as is the purely air work of the R.A.F.

Also in the course of the Estimates, Sir Samuel Hoare made the statement that in November, 1918, the R.A.F. was composed of 30,122 officers, 263,410 airmen, and 3,300 Service aeroplanes, whereas when he spoke in March, 1923, it was composed of 3,071 officers, 27,499 airmen, and 371 first line aeroplanes. As against these figures he stated that in November, 1918, the French had 3,600 Service machines and to-day still had 1,260.

### The Desert Mail.

Among the most interesting work done by the R.A.F. during 1923 has been the running of the Cairo-Baghdad air mail. This service started in 1922, but it is only during 1923 that it has become a thoroughly efficient service. Though undoubtedly the desert route to Baghdad should be part of a commercial air line from England to Australia *via* India it has certainly been good policy to run it for the present as a Service undertaking.

No commercial air line could have tackled the task for it is

at present nothing like a commercial proposition even with a generous subsidy. The R.A.F. on the other hand regards it as being first-class training for pilots and other personnel in that the flying is almost as dangerous as flying under war conditions. Also it provides a quick and efficient way of transporting despatches and official people between headquarters Iraq and Middle East headquarters in Cairo. Furthermore the continual passing of aeroplanes along the desert route has a very salutary effect on the local Arab tribes and tends to keep them in something like a sensible frame of mind.

Although the R.A.F. is still compelled to use out-of-date machines on the Baghdad line the regularity of the service has been extraordinary and there have been hardly any fatalities although there have been quite a number of forced landings out in the open desert along the route. It is nothing unusual for letters from Baghdad to reach London in eight or nine days as against the six weeks or so necessary by the ordinary route through the Persian Gulf to India and thence to England.

### **R.A.F. Increases.**

On May 9th a statement was made in the House of Lords which will ultimately affect the whole future of the British Empire. For a long time an agitation had been in progress in Parliament and in the newspapers concerning the weakness of the Royal Air Force. It was known that the Committee of Imperial Defence had been considering the question, and on the date mentioned the Marquess of Salisbury as the spokesman of the Government stated definitely that "a considerable increase in the Air Force will be necessary."

He laid it down as a Government doctrine that the R.A.F. must in future be equal in strength to the biggest Air Force within reach of this country, that is to say that in future we shall have an Air Force definitely on a One-Power Standard. This announcement is very nearly as important in its historical value as was the statement made in the previous year that the R.A.F. is to be in future our First Line of Defence. A similar announcement was made by Sir Samuel Hoare in the House of Commons on June 26th.

A further recognition of the importance of air power was given when Mr. Baldwin formed his Cabinet in May and Sir Samuel Hoare, Secretary of State for Air, was made a member of the Cabinet. Hitherto the Air Minister had been on paper "one of His Majesty's Secretaries of State" but he had not been a member of the Cabinet.

Yet another step in the importance of the R.A.F. was the promotion of Sir John Salmond, Air Officer Commanding all British Forces in Iraq, in the King's Birthday Honours List to the rank of Air Marshal. Nearly a year earlier Sir Hugh Trenchard, Chief of the Air Staff, had been promoted to Air Chief Marshal, making him of rank equivalent to a full General in the

Army and a full Admiral in the Navy. Sir John Salmond's promotion gave him equivalent rank to a Lieutenant-General in the Army and so raised the status of the R.A.F. in Iraq to that of an Army Corps.

### **The R.A.F. Pageant.**

The Royal Air Force Pageant took place on June 30th, and once more proved that the R.A.F. to-day sets the standard for the air services of all other nations just as in the past the British Navy was the standard for the naval people of all the world. The formation flying and the individual flying was as wonderful as ever, and the progress of the R.A.F. was indicated by the number of aeroplanes of new types which were exhibited.

It is true that these new aeroplanes were only samples and that none of them had been even ordered let alone delivered in quantities for the re-equipment of the R.A.F. But the fact that such machines exist is at any rate an indication of the possibilities of the R.A.F. when orders are actually given out to the Trade for new types.

### **A Naval Armistice.**

The feud between the Navy, which wants its own air service, and the Air Ministry, which wants to control all air work, was patched up if it did not actually cease in August 1923. A sub-committee of the Committee of Imperial Defence, consisting of the Lords Balfour, Peel and Weir, examined a large number of witnesses from the Navy and the Air Force as to the alleged reasons for disagreement between the two Services, and on August 2nd the Prime Minister Mr. Baldwin announced in the House of Commons that "the consideration of the sub-committee of the evidence, like the consideration by other authorities on previous occasions, has led them to a conclusion—a unanimous conclusion—in favour of the principle of a single air service."

Even after this there was considerable argument in the pro-Navy newspapers, and at the time of writing this article the supporters of the Navy are still threatening to raise the question again in the House of Commons at the first opportunity.

Nevertheless as has been indicated the people of the British Empire may rest assured that at the present moment we have in fact by far the most efficient Air Force in the world, and actually in all probability the strongest Air Force considered in fighting power, although there may be others or at any rate one other which is more numerous. The future of British Air Power depends on how long the Government takes in enlarging the R.A.F. as promised to Parliament.

### **Civil Aviation.**

Turning now to Civil Aviation we find almost equally remarkable progress. The air lines have been running under very unsatisfactory conditions in that they have been working on

subsidies without any fixity of tenure. One of the first acts of Sir Samuel Hoare when he had really settled down in office was to appoint, on January 2nd 1923, what has become known as the Hambling Committee from the name of the Chairman, to consider Civil Aviation in its financial aspects.

This Committee reported on February 20th that in its opinion Civil Aviation would best be served by the formation of a single big National Air Transport Company with Government support. The Committee recommended that the Company should be able to command a capital if necessary of a million pounds, and that the Government should guarantee a subsidy spread over a term of years which would not exceed a million pounds. Thus the proposed air line firm became generally known in the Aircraft Industry as the "Million Pound Monopoly Company," because if and when it is formed it is to have a monopoly of the Government subsidies. At the time of writing, October 1923, that million pound company is still unformed.

When the report was issued three air lines were in operation, namely the Handley-Page Transport, Ltd. running the London-Paris route, the Instone Air Line, Ltd. running the London-Cologne route, and the Daimler Airway, Ltd. running the London-Rotterdam-Amsterdam route, which later in the year was extended to Berlin. Preparations had also been made for the running of a flying-boat line from Southampton to Cherbourg and the Channel Islands. This line which was organised by the Supermarine Aviation Works of Southampton is backed by the Southern Group of railways.

The Hambling Committee recommended the inclusion of the four existing air lines in the Million Pound Monopoly Company. Various meetings were held by the chiefs of the four lines, and though an agreement as to terms and responsibilities was reached between the Daimler Company, the Handley-Page Company and the Supermarine Company, these three found it impossible to agree to the terms on which the Instone Air Line insisted. Consequently, late in 1923, two separate schemes were submitted to the Air Ministry, one by the Instone Company which apparently argued that the subsidy should be the monopoly of that line, and the other by what is commonly called the Three-Firm Combine. It was generally known that the latter had the backing of the British, Foreign and Colonial Corporation, Ltd., the chief of which is Mr. Szarvasy, one of the best-known financiers in this country, who was brought into contact with the Three-Firm Combine by Mr. G. Holt Thomas, the famous pioneer of British aviation, though Mr. Thomas himself refused to take any interest in the arrangement and even refused a seat on the Board of the proposed air transport company.

In spite of financial difficulties and political manoeuvres in connection with the air lines, the actual work of the lines was carried on with extraordinary efficiency. ,



The Daimler Airway on the London-Amsterdam-Berlin service introduced a system of intensive flying which enabled them to run the service efficiently with the minimum of machines, pilots and mechanics. In fact the whole organisation was based on the highly efficient lines introduced first of all in the London General Omnibus Company and later in the Daimler Motor-car Hire Service by Colonel Frank Searle, who has been ably seconded by Major G. E. Woods Humphrey, late R.A.F.

The Handley-Page London-Paris service carried the greatest number of passengers during the year, and in certain weeks actually carried more passengers between London and Paris than were carried on the whole of the air lines on that route during the corresponding weeks of the previous year. Mr. Cogni and Mr. Savage of the Handley-Page Company certainly achieved a wonderfully high level of effectiveness.

The Instone Air Line, which wisely acquired the services of Ogilvie & Partners, Ltd. as consulting and organising engineers, also attained to a very high degree of efficiency by the time the passenger flying season was at its height.

In the Autumn the Supermarine firm started their service to the Channel Islands and in spite of very bad weather managed to run very regularly.

An agreement was finally reached between all the four firms in October 1923 and the new National Company should be in full operation by April 1924.

### **Air Mail Experiments.**

Late in September and early in October some very interesting experiments in mail carrying were made by the De Havilland Hire Service. This firm had done an enormous amount of flying during the year. As they do not run a regular air line they are unsubsidised and carry on what is practically an air-taxi service. Their machines have been hired for trips practically all over the Continent of Europe. On special occasions they have achieved wonderful results with the distribution of photographs and cinematograph films, as for example when on Derby Day films of the race taken at three o'clock in the afternoon were actually on view in Aberdeen at ten o'clock the same night.

Presumably by way of acknowledging the firm's good work the Air Ministry chartered certain of their machines in September to run a trial mail service between Plymouth and Belfast, the idea being to show how American mails could be accelerated to those cities. The result of these experiments showed that a degree of regularity could be obtained at any rate as high as that of the ordinary cross-channel steamboat services, and that the saving in time as between Plymouth and Belfast was something like twelve hours in each direction, this being sufficient to allow business men in Belfast to reply to letters from America in time to catch the return mail boat to the United States.

In addition to all this regular work sundry small firms still travel round the country taking up passengers for what are commonly known as "joy-rides." Even in this minor branch of aviation, progress is to be recorded. On one occasion Mr. Kingwill, of the Kingwill and Jones Company, and on another occasion, Mr. Parkinson of the Berkshire Aviation Tours, each took up more than 200 paying passengers in the day, the passengers being carried two at a time in ordinary standard Avros. That this should be possible indicates a very high degree of efficiency on the part of the mechanical organisation of the firms.

### **Air Congresses.**

In connection with Civil Aviation two important Congresses took place during the year under the auspices of the Air Ministry. The first was a National Congress beginning on February 6th. A number of very interesting papers were read and considerable valuable discussion took place.

This was followed by an International Congress, which began on June 25th, and lasted for a week. Representatives of all civilised nations were present, and the Congress was of value quite as much for the way in which the representatives of various nations were brought together and made acquainted as it was from a technical point of view.

The official proceedings of the Congress were opened by the Prince of Wales, and on the same night the delegates and members were received by the Duke and Duchess of York. On the following night the Lord Mayor of London gave a reception at the Mansion House, and on the next day the Air Minister gave a garden party. Later in the week the Duke and Duchess of Sutherland held a reception, and the proceedings finished with a banquet over which the Duke of Sutherland presided.

In between the readings of papers and the social entertainments, the delegates visited a number of aircraft factories and R.A.F. stations. The result of all this was that a number of very important foreigners went away with a very good impression of the state of British aviation.

### **Airships.**

A certain amount of attention was given to airships during the year, and on July 26th a scheme promoted by Lieut.-Commander Burney, M.P., for an airship line between London and India was promised financial support by the Air Minister provided that adequate guarantees could be put up for an approved scheme. Up to November 1923 the scheme was still on paper, and the airships which are to be used for training and experimental work are still in charge of a care and maintenance party at Pulham.

### **A Co-operative Exhibition.**

Very good work for British industry was done by the combined exhibit of a number of British aircraft firms under the auspices

of the Society of British Aircraft Constructors and with the financial assistance of the Air Ministry at the International Aero Show at Gothenburg. A "De Havilland 50" passenger-carrying biplane with a Siddeley "Puma" engine, piloted by Mr. Alan J. Cobham, won the prize offered for regularity over a set course for several days in succession, and the British combined exhibit absolutely eclipsed both in quantity and quality the exhibits of other nations.

### **Sporting Flying.**

On the sporting side the year was equally satisfactory. The first event of note was a very sporting race starting from Lympne near Folkestone, the course being to Croydon, Birmingham, Bristol, Croydon, and back to Lympne. The prize was a cup offered by the Lord Edward Grosvenor and a very good entry was obtained. The winner was Flight-Lieut. Longton, R.A.F., on an aged Sopwith "Gnu" belonging to Lieut.-Col. Frank McClean.

Of a more commercial nature was the race for the King's Cup, starting from Hendon and going via Birmingham, Newcastle, Glasgow, Manchester, Bristol and back to Hendon on July 13th and 14th. This was won by Mr. Frank T. Courtney on an Armstrong-Whitworth "Siskin" with a Siddeley "Jaguar" engine.

The Aerial Derby race round London was run from Croydon on August 6th, and this was won by Mr. Laurence Carter on a Gloucestershire "Gloster" with a Napier "Lion" engine. Thus it will be seen that the prizes were very equally distributed and were not monopolised by any one firm.

The competition for the Schneider International Maritime Aviation Trophy, which had been won at Naples by a Supermarine flying boat with a Napier engine in 1922, took place at Cowes on September 28th 1923. The only British representative was the same Supermarine boat which had won in the previous year and though the pilot, Captain Baird, put up a very fine performance, covering the course at 169 miles an hour, he was defeated by two Curtiss Navy Racers, which had been built and entered by the U.S. Naval Air Service and were flown by U.S. naval officers.

The faster of these two machines made a speed of 177 m.p.h. over a triangular course. In calm air on a straight line this machine is capable of a speed of close on 200 miles an hour, which is quite rapid for a seagoing aircraft.

The last sporting event of the year was the series of competitions held at Lympne between October 8th and October 13th for the prizes offered first by the Duke of Sutherland, secondly by the "Daily Mail," thirdly by the Abdulla Cigarette Company, and fourthly by the Motor Trade.

Light aeroplanes have, unfortunately, become known as "motor gliders," an entire misnomer because a "glider" is essentially an aeroplane without an engine and as soon as an engine is put into it the machine ceases to be a glider and becomes an ordinary

aeroplane. However, the term motor glider was accepted by the Royal Aero Club and presumably will remain in common use as the description of small aeroplanes with limited engine power.

For these competitions it was laid down purely arbitrarily that the limiting cylinder capacity of engines should be 750 cubic centimetres. There was no particular reason for fixing this figure any more than for fixing the figure at 1,000 or 1,500 cubic centimetres, but this very low limit certainly did result in the production of a number of astonishingly efficient small aeroplanes.

An aeroplane which will carry a man at approximately 70 miles an hour with a petrol consumption of over 80 miles to the gallon is obviously not to be despised either as an actual vehicle or as an indication as to what can be done by "cleaning-up" large aeroplanes to the standard of these small machines.

The Duke of Sutherland's £500 prize for all-British motor-gliders and the "Daily Mail's" £1,000 International Prize were split between a "Wren" monoplane, built by the English Electric Co., and a monoplane built by the Air Navigation and Engineering Co., each of which did  $87\frac{1}{2}$  miles on one gallon of petrol. The speed prize was won by a Parnall "Pixie" at 76 miles an hour. The height prize was won by an A.N.E.C. with 14,500 feet, and the aggregate mileage (for the week) prize was won on an Avro with 1,000 miles, in spite of very wet and foggy weather and a wind of gale strength on most days.

### **The State of the Industry.**

From these notes it may be deduced that Civil Aviation in Great Britain is progressing quite favourably, in spite of the fact that the country is alleged to be on the verge of bankruptcy and that all trades are without work. As a matter of fact, the British Aircraft Industry has supplied a very large number of aircraft to foreign countries. Naturally the greater number of them have been wartime stock renovated and reconditioned, but in addition quite a satisfactory number of samples of aeroplanes of new designs have been sold to such countries as are capable of paying for them. But the best of all our aeroplane designs are retained in this country, as they are the property of the Air Ministry, having been produced as the result of Air Ministry orders.

### **Technical Progress.**

On the purely technical side progress has continued to be quite satisfactory. The Fairey Aviation Company have again produced a very remarkable aeroplane in their new single-seater fighter, the "Flycatcher," which with a top speed of 150 miles an hour flies under perfect control at 45 miles an hour and lands also under full control at something like 30 miles an hour. Should the pilot make a mistake in the air and lose his flying speed, or "stall" as it is called, this machine does not dive and spin into the ground but descends almost like a parachute. Consequently

it may be considered that those numerous accidents caused by stalling, especially in the act of landing or when getting off from a small aerodrome, can be avoided in future.

The De Havilland Company have produced quite an extraordinary commercial machine, which carrying four passengers and a pilot, with a Siddeley "Puma" engine is actually faster than were the older De Havillands with the same engine carrying only a passenger and a pilot.

The Gloucestershire Aircraft Company still has the distinction of having produced the fastest British aeroplane, the new "Gloster," which with a Napier "Lion" engine of 450 h.p. may reasonably be considered a rival to the latest American aeroplanes with 500 h.p.

The air-cooled Bristol "Jupiter" and Armstrong-Siddeley "Jaguar" engines have proved themselves during the year to be reliable as well as powerful, and the Rolls-Royce "Condor" and the 1,000 h.p. Napier "Cub," the biggest aero-engine in the world, are also coming satisfactorily through what are known technically as teething troubles.

### Aviation Overseas.

The British Dominions Overseas are developing aviation slowly but surely. The Canadian forest patrols and general timber survey work have been operating regularly during the year with wonderful freedom from accidents, thus showing that the organisation is excellent even though antiquated aeroplanes are still in use.

In Australia one of the most regular air lines in the world has been run between Geraldton and Derby in Western Australia, and very good work has also been done on the line from Cloncurry to Charleville in Queensland. The Royal Australian Air Force has been doing good training work but has not developed in size as rapidly as had been hoped. The great scheme for a coast defence air force has apparently been delayed by political troubles.

In South Africa the Air Force has also been training assiduously, but has had no active service work to do during the past year.

In New Zealand a new scheme is now coming through for a species of Air Force Militia, but at present it is chiefly on paper.

In India one has to report regretfully that still nothing has been done.

Among foreign nations France has again built an enormous number of aeroplanes for the Army Air Service and could undoubtedly put quite a respectable fighting force into the air. On the commercial side the French have done a great deal of air line work but technically their machines are not considered to be in any way comparable to English machines.

Italy has been reorganising her air services which are now fairly efficient though small. But practically no civil aviation exists in Italy.



The American Naval and Military Air Services have chiefly distinguished themselves by fostering air racing to an extent unequalled in any other country. The American Navy team, as already noted, won the Schneider Trophy in this country and the Pulitzer Trophy race, which is the great American national event, was practically a competition between naval and military aviators. It was won by a naval aviator at a speed of 243 miles per hour round a triangular course. The winning machine must be capable of a speed of close on 270 miles per hour in a straight line in still air, and is therefore very much the fastest vehicle in the world.

The American Postal Department has run a trans-Continental aerial mail with great regularity and high efficiency throughout the year and is now organising for a day and night air mail service. The American Navy has allowed the Army Air Service to experiment in bombing comparatively modern battleships with full-size bombs and so has permitted the Army to demonstrate conclusively that to be proof against air attack battleship design must be practically revolutionised.

After this even General Mason Patrick, Chief of the U.S. Army Air Service, remarked that the Air Service was not concerned to argue whether battleships were obsolete or not; the Air Service merely knew that whatever ships were put on the sea it was able to sink them.

The smaller countries of Europe, such as the Baltic States and Central European States, are all developing useful little air services and several of them are building interesting experimental aeroplanes.

As stated last year the Russians are building aeroplanes, and they have also bought a considerable number from the Dutch constructor Fokker as well as from the Aircraft Disposal Company in England.

The South American nations are also developing air services

The Japanese have continued the developments of last year, but there is no notable step to be chronicled in their progress.

### **Gliders and Helicopters.**

The art and science of gliding which promised to do great things last year has apparently fallen into a state of innocuous desuetude because everybody has been so much interested in the mis-called motor-gliders. Reference to this work has been made previously in this article.

Quite a large amount of money has been spent in various parts of the world on helicopters (or "direct lift" machines), and one imagines that the maximum amount of money in any one country has been spent by the British Government on Mr. Brennan's helicopter which has been built at the Royal Aircraft Establishment.

The Air Ministry's offer of a £50,000 prize for a helicopter which puts up the performance of a very tenth-rate aeroplane still holds good and so far nobody shows any signs of winning the money.

### In Conclusion.

Taking it all round there is every reason to be pleased with the development of aviation, though naturally the aeronautical community will be still more pleased when the wealthier people of this country take a more practical interest in flying, either as actual users of commercial aircraft or as financiers and entrants of sporting aeroplanes in flying competitions.

Finally one may express the opinion that though America has faster aeroplanes with more powerful engines and though France has more aeroplanes Great Britain still holds her own not only as the leading Air Power from the militant point of view but also as the leading nation where the design and construction of warlike and commercial aircraft are concerned.

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## The Earthquake in Japan

**A**MONG the tragic events of the past year, the destruction of Tokyo and Yokohama must be given the first place. One has to go back seventy years to find a parallel in a similar visitation which wrecked the capital of Japan, but even so, it will probably be decided, when the full extent of the devastation is appraised, that never before has a great metropolis and its chief port been so completely reduced to ruins and chaos. And in making this forecast such precedents as Lisbon and San Francisco are not forgotten.

The earthquake was not severe in its first manifestations, but was similar to those common in Japan. The first warning came on September 1st in the form of a succession of shocks. Suddenly, however, there came a swirling motion of ever-increasing violence. Fires at many points of the city were started, and then a typhoon sprang up and spread the conflagration throughout the doomed capital. Vast chasms opened in the ground, in which many perished. Correspondents describe the scenes as appalling. The surrounding country was rendered unrecognisable. Hills had slipped into valleys, valleys were heaped high with débris, bridges had disappeared, and streams had been diverted.

The most violent shocks occurred before noon on the first day, and hundreds of wooden houses, shops and dwellings collapsed immediately, imprisoning thousands of people, of whom a vast number were later burned. Communications were almost entirely cut off, as were food supplies and water, the populace being reduced to panic by the appalling nature of the catastrophe and the terrors of what was to come.

The chief cause of the conflagration which, as almost invariably happens, was more destructive than the earth-convulsions, was the breaking of the gas-pipes through the collapse of the houses.

Prompt measures were taken to reduce the areas of the fires by blowing up surrounding buildings, but the strong wind blowing at the time and the overpowering fumes of the escaping gas rendered the struggles of the firemen ineffectual.

A further horror was lent to the scenes by the masses of homeless and demented people—estimated at a million and a half—that thronged the streets, sought avenues of escape, and obstructed the work of salvage. Dead bodies were piled up at the busy centres and choked the main routes of communication, and the lawless elements added to the pandemonium by wholesale looting and other excesses which necessitated the proclaiming of martial law.

At the same time, Yokohama was destroyed, and those of its inhabitants who were not dead were homeless outcasts. The foreign residents of the two cities had fared better than the native population, for most of them were absent at the summer resorts of Nikko and Karnizawa. The fires continued to rage until Sunday night, September 2nd, when troops were sent to demolish all inflammable buildings with bombs, and the flames were got under control.

Official figures put the number of deaths at the various centres of the shocks as follows:—Tokyo, 110,000; Yokohama, 30,000; other towns, 32,000. The dwellings of 700,000 persons out of a total population of 2,000,000 in the areas affected were destroyed. The first rough estimate put the cost of the damage in Tokyo alone at £500,000,000, but the official estimate, in conformity with the general policy of minimising the effects of the disaster, fixed the total loss at £186,000,000, or rather less than two per cent. of the total wealth of Japan. Moreover, it was computed that only two years would be required to rebuild the capital. The damage to the telephones has been put at £3,000,000, and six months are expected to elapse before the system is completely restored.

Among the more notable buildings destroyed by fire were the British, American, French and Italian Embassies, as well as the Chinese Legation. Three princes of the blood royal of Japan were among the killed.

Order was gradually restored by September 5th, but shelter, provisions, clothing and transport were extremely scarce. Troops were concentrated in and around the ruined area, and stern precautions were taken against outbreaks of lawlessness. About half a million refugees were encamped around the Imperial Palace, and these destitute victims had to wait many hours in a line two miles in length to get one piece of a riceball each.

The scenes were described as heartrending. Parents were wandering about calling the names of their lost children, or carrying placards with the names of the lost on them. Food fetched enormous prices, although attempts at profiteering were severely punished if detected.

Messages from Tokyo continued to record shocks a week after the first outbreak. On the night of September 10th seven fresh earthquakes occurred. It may be noted that the investigations of Dr. Nakamura have tended to prove that the earthquake was not of volcanic origin, but due to a movement of the earth's crust, and originated in two separate places.

By the middle of the second week in September the situation was well in hand. Measures of relief were swiftly organised, and regular supplies of food, especially tinned varieties from America, became available for distribution. Relief funds contributed by the leading nations, and quickly amounting to £2,000,000, were despatched to the aid of the sufferers. The Mansion House Fund alone had grown to £190,000 by September 21st. Japan's recognition of British sympathy and practical assistance was expressed by Baron Hayashi in the following message:—"From the bottom of my heart I thank all the people in England for the great sympathy and help they are giving to the sufferers from the earthquake in my country. I really cannot find sufficient expression to thank them."

The insurance position was necessarily very complicated, and involved figures proportionate to the vast scale of the disaster. Thus the amount insured against fire in the devastated districts with Japanese companies alone was 2,200,000,000 yen, or eight times their combined capital. Payment in full is, therefore, made impossible, and it is equally impracticable to pay for the inevitable accidents contracted. Life assurance offices, however, promptly began payment, after the Bank of Japan agreed to advance £5,000,000 on security of property offered by the forty-seven companies to the total value of £65,000,000. Of this loan, claims in Tokyo and Yokohama are expected to absorb £3,000,000, the balance of £2,000,000 being used to help living policy-holders who have suffered serious loss.

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## National Finance.

By RICHARD KEEGAN.

**V**IEWED from the financial standpoint, the year 1923 will not be one of very pleasant memories. In almost every direction it was a period of disappointed hopes and unattained objectives. At home it saw hardly any reduction in the vast volume of unemployment, continued business depression, and a contraction in all forms of financial activity. In the absence of a revival in the demand for goods from foreign markets, the country's staple industries have been experiencing conditions of comparative stagnation, while attempts to improve the economic

situation artificially by the expenditure of public money have been limited in extent and relatively barren of fruitful results. At the same time, conditions abroad have shown little sign of amelioration. On the Continent of Europe, it can justly be said, the situation, both politically and economically, has drifted from bad to worse. The Reparations problem remains unsolved, if not unsolvable. Reckless currency inflation has brought about confusion worse confounded in the foreign exchanges.\* Economic distress has given rise to social and political unrest.

### **A Budgetary Equilibrium.**

At home, apart from the upkeep of large masses of unemployed at the expense of the taxpayers, the financial situation, if still remote from normal, is not unhealthy. A budgetary equilibrium has been established, with every prospect of its being maintained without resort to additional taxation. Floating debt is being steadily, if slowly, reduced. Inflation is being studiously avoided. The cost of living has come down, and in most trades wages have been automatically and for the most part peaceably lowered. Still our need remains markets, not only in Central Europe, but in the East and Latin America—markets without which we cannot hope to find work for our unemployed. The development of markets within the Empire is a most praiseworthy and patriotic object, but the process is necessarily slow and therefore incapable of solving our present and urgent problems. Before we can hope to reap the rewards of creating new markets, we must endeavour to rehabilitate old ones, by increasing their productive efficiency, thereby restoring their purchasing power and enabling our manufacturers to find a ready-made outlet for their goods

### **Trade and Taxation.**

An essential prerequisite of healthy national finances, it need scarcely be said, is good trade. When trade is active and profitable, revenue flows in freely, whereas when it is dull and stagnant, revenue falls off, necessitating, in the absence of a corresponding curtailment of expenditure, the imposition of additional taxation. Additional taxation in time restricts trade by reducing the purchasing power of the community, on the one hand, and increasing, on the other hand, the prices at which goods of every description can be sold. The burdens of British taxpayers have already been considerably alleviated—how much will be understood when it is stated that, whereas in 1919–20 the Treasury had to provide for an outlay of £1,665 millions, the bill which it must meet in the financial year 1923–24 is limited to £821 millions. In other words, our expenditure—and consequently the need to provide for it—has been halved.

What prospect is there of the taxpayers' burdens being further

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[\*On Nov. 20th French francs were 81, Belgium francs 94, and German marks 35,000 milliards to the £1 sterling.—EDITORS, B.D.Y.B.]



reduced? In the light of the Chancellor of the Exchequer's speech on October 13th, the outlook cannot be described as very promising. Mr. Neville Chamberlain declares that it would be foolish, as things stand to-day, to count upon a further remission of taxation in the near future.

For this opinion he gives three reasons: first, the loss of revenue involved in the reduction of taxation under the last Budget; secondly, the practical extinction of miscellaneous revenue, in the shape of the proceeds of the sale of surplus war stores; and, thirdly, the basing of income-tax assessments on the returns of comparatively lean years.

Accordingly, he anticipates a shrinkage of some £50 millions in the revenue of 1924-25. Obviously, if revenue is on the down grade, the only way to avoid increased taxation is to reduce public expenditure. On that point the new Chancellor of the Exchequer is ominously silent.

### **Crushing Expenditure.**

It is perfectly true that expenditure has already been severely cut down, but even to-day it stands at a level which imposes a heavier burden on British citizens than on those of any other state in the world. Some of our post-war obligations, such as interest on debt and pensions, are unavoidable and cannot be shirked. But in other directions bureaucratic officials have imposed on the State various grandiose schemes which have increased the crushing load the taxpayers have to carry.

There is still ample room for economies which, if not as sweeping as those recommended as feasible by the Geddes Committee, would be none the less desirable and welcome. The Civil Service is still far too costly, even when full allowance is made for the higher cost of living, while expenditure on the fighting services is conceived on a scale that makes a mockery of the boast that the last war was a war to end all wars.

Results for the financial year ended March 31st, 1923, were surprisingly good. Instead of revenue exceeding expenditure by the nominal sum of £700,000, as anticipated by Sir Robert Horne, there was an actual realised surplus of no less than £101,500,000. This, however, was due not to unforeseen expansion in revenue—the total revenue, as a matter of fact, surpassing Sir Robert's estimate by only £3,250,000—but to substantial savings in expenditure.

The total saving, as contrasts with the estimates, was as much as £98,000,000 and this indirect windfall was applied automatically to the reduction of debt, that being the recognised object to which the budgetary surpluses, constituting the old sinking fund, are devoted.

### **Budget of 1923-24.**

Introduced on April 16th, 1923, by Mr. Stanley Baldwin, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Budget for the financial year

1923-24 was favourably received, though it was not devoid of weak spots. Perhaps the most disappointing feature of the Chancellor's statement was the absence of any further curtailment of expenditure. His first calculation was for an outlay of £816,616,000, but that was subsequently increased to £821,035,000, a sum exceeding by some £8,500,000 the actual expenditure for the year 1922-23.

It is only fair to add that the maintenance of expenditure at the high level of the previous year, in spite of important economies in the supply services effected through the operation of the Geddes "Axe," was due chiefly to additional provision for debt redemption. Thus sinking fund charges were increased from £21,753,000 to £45,000,000, and consolidated fund charges, that is interest, from £323,990,000 to £350,000,000, this latter increase being due, of course, to the payment of interest on our debt to America.

### **Remission of Taxation.**

Revenue on the then existing basis of taxation was reckoned at £852,650,000, showing a surplus of some £36,000,000 on the original estimate of expenditure. The Chancellor of the Exchequer was, consequently, able to effect some remission of taxation. He lowered the income tax from 5/- to 4/6 in the £ and the corporation profits tax from 1/- to 6d. He also took 20/- a barrel off the beer duty, abolished the tax on cider and perry, reduced the duty on sweetened mineral waters, and made certain concessions in postal and telephone charges.

Of his proposals the most expensive and the most welcome was the reduction of the income tax, which even now constitutes a very heavy, not to say crushing, burden, especially when taken in conjunction with other wartime imposts.

### **Sinking Fund Provision.**

Of all Mr. Baldwin's proposals on the expenditure side that most favourably received in responsible financial quarters was the establishment of a sinking fund for the redemption of debt on a scale not previously contemplated. In the current year (1923-24), £40,000,000 is to be set aside for that purpose, in 1924-5, £45,000,000, and in subsequent years, £50,000,000.

The latter sum, it is worth noting, approximates closely to the yield of the Death Duties, and it is very fitting that the proceeds of that form of capital levy should be applied, not to meeting current expenditure, but to the redemption of debt. The policy of paying off debt as rapidly as possible, without causing undue embarrassment to taxpayers, is undoubtedly a sound one. Money so spent returns at once to the investment market as soon as Government securities are bought up, and is thus released for employment in industry.

## Detailed Figures.

In the following table are given details of the actual revenue and expenditure for 1922-23 and of the estimated revenue and expenditure for 1923-24.

| REVENUE.                       | Actual.<br>1922-23. | Estimated.<br>1923-24. |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Customs . . . . .              | £123,043,000        | £116,900,000           |
| Excise . . . . .               | 157,275,000         | 143,850,000            |
| Motor Vehicles . . . . .       | 12,321,000          | 13,250,000             |
| Estates . . . . .              | 56,871,000          | 52,000,000             |
| Stamps . . . . .               | 22,222,000          | 20,000,000             |
| Land Tax . . . . .             | 2,980,000           | 3,000,000              |
| Income and Super Tax . . . . . | 379,045,000         | 319,000,000            |
| Excess Profits Duty . . . . .  | 2,004,000           | 12,000,000             |
| Corporation Profits . . . . .  | 18,977,000          | 20,000,000             |
| Post Office. . . . .           | 34,150,000          | 32,200,000             |
| Telegraphs . . . . .           | 5,500,000           | 5,250,000              |
| Telephones . . . . .           | 13,550,000          | 14,150,000             |
| Crown Lands . . . . .          | 900,000             | 900,000                |
| Interest on Loans . . . . .    | 10,016,000          | 12,500,000             |
| Miscellaneous . . . . .        | 75,158,000          | 52,500,000             |
| <b>Total . . . . .</b>         | <b>£914,012,000</b> | <b>£818,500,000</b>    |

| EXPENDITURE.                              | Actual.<br>1922-23. | Estimated.<br>1923-24. |
|-------------------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Debt Interest . . . . .                   | £302,237,000        | £310,000,000           |
| Sinking Fund . . . . .                    | 21,753,000          | 40,000,000             |
| Road Fund . . . . .                       | 11,722,000          | 12,650,000             |
| Local Taxation Account . . . . .          | 10,471,000          | 10,348,000             |
| Land Settlement . . . . .                 | 1,286,000           | 1,500,000              |
| Northern Ireland . . . . .                | 3,323,000           | 3,000,000              |
| Other Consolidated Fund Charges . . . . . | 2,704,000           | 2,972,000              |
| Army . . . . .                            | 45,400,000          | 52,000,000             |
| Navy . . . . .                            | 56,200,000          | 58,000,000             |
| Air Force . . . . .                       | 9,400,000           | 12,011,000             |
| Civil Service . . . . .                   | 286,826,000         | 256,089,000            |
| Customs and Excise . . . . .              | 11,317,000          | 11,591,000             |
| Post Office. . . . .                      | 49,857,000          | 50,874,000             |
| <b>Total . . . . .</b>                    | <b>£812,496,000</b> | <b>£821,035,000</b>    |

It will be seen that while the estimated revenue for the current year (1923-24) is some £95,000,000 smaller than for the preceding twelve months, the expenditure shows an increase of £8,500,000, and exceeds the expected revenue by £2,500,000.

## A Small Deficit.

Thus a small deficit is foreshadowed in place of a large surplus.

How far the figures on either side of the account are likely to be realised it is difficult at this stage to say. Mr. Neville Chamberlain, Mr. Baldwin's successor at the Exchequer, warns us not to assume that, because favourable results have been obtained in the first half of the financial year—the receipts for the six months

## The British Dominions Year Book 1924

to September 30th, 1923, exceeded by some £3,000,000 the expenditure for the same period—the ultimate outcome will be equally satisfactory. It is in the final quarter of the year, when income-tax collections are on a heavy scale, that surpluses are secured or lost, and no one can foresee what the position will be in the last week of March next. But apparently there is no likelihood of any formidable deficit unless the Government should embark upon expensive adventures at home or abroad.

### Maturing Debt.

Accompanying the Chancellor's financial statement were two highly interesting statements, the one showing particulars of the debt, maturing year by year, and the other the amounts owing to Great Britain from her Allies and Dominions. The former is reproduced below:—

| Year.   | Security.                                                                                                                                                                                     | Internal.                                                  | External.                          | Total.                               |
|---------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1923-4  | 5% National War Bonds—<br>1 April, 1923. . . . .<br>1 Sept., 1923. . . . .<br>1 Feb., 1924. . . . .<br>5½% Exchequer Bonds, 1 Feb., 1924 .<br>U.S.A. Government Loan (Silver)<br>\$30,500,000 | £<br>28,150,000<br>63,284,000<br>21,124,000<br>25,000<br>— | £<br>—<br>—<br>—<br>—<br>6,267,000 | £<br>—<br>—<br>—<br>—<br>118,850,000 |
| 1924-5  | 5% National War Bonds, 1 Oct., 1924 .<br>5½% Exchequer Bonds, 1 Feb., 1925 .<br>U.S.A. Government Loan (Silver)<br>\$30,500,000                                                               | 22,219,000<br>134,617,000<br>—                             | —<br>—<br>6,267,000                | 163,103,000                          |
| 1925-6  | 5% National War Bonds and Treasury Bonds . . . . .                                                                                                                                            | 46,376,000                                                 | —                                  | 46,376,000                           |
| 1926-7  | 5% Treasury Bonds . . . . .<br>Central Argentine Rly. Co., \$15,000,000                                                                                                                       | 110,132,000<br>—                                           | —<br>3,082,000                     | 113,214,000                          |
| 1927-8  | 5% Treasury Bonds, 5% National War Bonds, and 3½% War Loan, 1925-28 . . . . .                                                                                                                 | 350,172,000                                                | —                                  | 350,172,000                          |
| 1928-9  | 4% and 5% National War Bonds . . .<br>5½% Straits Settlements Dollar Loan                                                                                                                     | 508,200,000<br>—                                           | —<br>3,341,000                     | 511,541,000                          |
| 1929-30 | 5½% Treasury Bonds and 3% Exchequer Bonds . . . . .<br>5½% 10-year Bonds, \$74,665,100 . .<br>5% Straits Settlements Sterling Loan                                                            | 46,278,000<br>—<br>184,741,000                             | —<br>15,342,000<br>4,315,000       | 65,935,000                           |
| 1930-1  | 5½% Treasury Bonds . . . . .                                                                                                                                                                  | 109,789,000                                                | —                                  | 109,789,000                          |
| 1932-3  | 4½% Treasury Bonds . . . . .                                                                                                                                                                  | 2,070,000                                                  | —                                  | 2,070,000                            |
| 1933-4  | 4% Treasury Bonds (Application Money only) . . . . .<br>5% Straits Settlements Sterling Loan                                                                                                  | 1,753,000<br>—                                             | —<br>29,504,000                    | 3,823,000                            |
| 1936-7  | 5½% 20-year Bonds, \$143,587,000 . .                                                                                                                                                          | —                                                          | —                                  | 29,504,000                           |
| 1940-1  | Anglo-French Loan 4½% Bonds—<br>\$13,850                                                                                                                                                      | —                                                          | 3,000                              | 3,000                                |
| 1942-3  | 4% War Loan, 1929-42 . . . . .                                                                                                                                                                | 64,831,000                                                 | —                                  | 64,831,000                           |
| 1945-6  | 4½% War Loan, 1925-45 . . . . .                                                                                                                                                               | 12,804,000                                                 | —                                  | 12,804,000                           |
| 1947-8  | 5% War Loan, 1929-47 . . . . .                                                                                                                                                                | 2,031,000,000                                              | —                                  | 2,031,000,000                        |
|         | 4% Victory Bonds* . . . . .                                                                                                                                                                   | 353,921,000                                                | —                                  | 353,921,000                          |
|         | 4% Funding Loan* . . . . .                                                                                                                                                                    | 400,649,000                                                | —                                  | 400,649,000                          |
|         | 3½% Conversion Loan* . . . . .                                                                                                                                                                | 684,000,000                                                | —                                  | 684,000,000                          |
|         | Funded Debt (Consols, &c.) . . . . .                                                                                                                                                          | 314,222,000                                                | —                                  | 314,222,000                          |
|         | Terminable Annuities . . . . .                                                                                                                                                                | 13,400,000                                                 | —                                  | 13,400,000                           |
|         | Treasury Bills . . . . .                                                                                                                                                                      | 616,045,000                                                | —                                  | 616,045,000                          |
|         | Ways and Means Advances . . . . .                                                                                                                                                             | 193,897,000                                                | —                                  | 193,897,000                          |
|         | National Savings Certificates . . . .                                                                                                                                                         | 354,155,000                                                | —                                  | 354,155,000                          |
|         | Loans from certain Allied Governments                                                                                                                                                         | —                                                          | 128,000,000                        | 128,000,000                          |
|         | U.S.A. Government Loan—*<br>\$4,600,000,000                                                                                                                                                   | —                                                          | 945,206,000                        | 945,206,000                          |
|         | Canadian Government Loan—<br>\$69,713,985                                                                                                                                                     | —                                                          | 14,325,000                         | 14,325,000                           |
|         |                                                                                                                                                                                               | 6,617,854,000                                              | 1,155,652,000                      | 7,773,506,000                        |

\*Loans being repaid by specific statutory sinking funds.

### Saving on Interest.

In the year 1924-25, debt to the amount of nearly £157,000,000 must be redeemed, in 1925-26, £46,376,000, in 1926-27, £110,132,000. None of these obligations should prove unduly embarrassing in an easy money market, and the net result of redemption will be to effect a not inconsiderable saving in interest, as fresh borrowing can now be arranged on much lighter terms than formerly. Both in 1927-28 and 1928-29 very substantial amounts fall due for redemption, but here again no difficulties should present themselves.

The most important point of all is: will the Government then in power decide to redeem in 1929, as it will have the option to do, the 5 per cent. War Loan, of which upwards of £2,030,000,000 is outstanding? If it exercises its right, it will, some five years hence, be able to effect a really substantial saving in interest charges, every reduction of 1 per cent. in interest representing a saving of £10,000,000 a year in interest on every £1,000,000,000 of debt. Indeed, it is on debt redemption or conversion on favourable terms that the income taxpayers' hope of substantial relief in the future chiefly depends.

### Loans to Allies and Dominions.

Official particulars of the amounts owing by the Dominions and Allies as on 31st March, 1923, are as follows:—

| <i>War Loans :—Dominions—</i>                         |             | £ | £              |
|-------------------------------------------------------|-------------|---|----------------|
| Australia . . . . .                                   | 90,389,000  |   |                |
| New Zealand . . . . .                                 | 29,482,000  |   |                |
| Canada . . . . .                                      | 13,810,000  |   |                |
| South Africa . . . . .                                | 11,884,000  |   |                |
| Other Dominions and Colonies . . . . .                | 3,153,000   |   |                |
|                                                       |             |   | 148,718,000    |
| <i>Allies—</i>                                        |             |   |                |
| Russia . . . . .                                      | 688,199,000 |   |                |
| France . . . . .                                      | 601,645,000 |   |                |
| Italy . . . . .                                       | 527,865,000 |   |                |
| Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom . . . . .                  | 26,194,000  |   |                |
| Portugal, Roumania, Greece and other Allies . . . . . | 70,057,000  |   |                |
|                                                       |             |   | 1,913,960,000  |
| <i>Relief and Reconstruction Loans :—</i>             |             |   |                |
| Austria . . . . .                                     | 12,805,000  |   |                |
| Poland . . . . .                                      | 4,156,000   |   |                |
| Roumania . . . . .                                    | 2,322,000   |   |                |
| Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom . . . . .                  | 2,135,000   |   |                |
| Other States . . . . .                                | 994,000     |   |                |
|                                                       |             |   | 22,412,000     |
| Belgian Reconstruction Loan . . . . .                 |             |   | 9,000,000      |
| <i>Other Loans :—</i>                                 |             |   |                |
| Armenia . . . . .                                     | 824,000     |   |                |
| Czecho-Slovakia . . . . .                             | 901,000     |   |                |
|                                                       |             |   | 1,725,000      |
|                                                       |             |   | £2,095,815,000 |



Of these loans, all save those granted to our Dominions and those made for relief and reconstruction purposes may be written off as bad assets. Russia will in no circumstances pay up, while France, Italy and our other European Allies would redeem their obligations in the remote event of their securing from Germany indemnities sufficient to meet not only their own pressing needs but their indebtedness to this country.

### **U.S. Debt Settlement.**

While our European Allies have virtually adopted a policy of repudiation, Great Britain, in accordance with her honourable traditions in the domain of national finance, has promptly effected a settlement of her debt to the United States, a debt, be it noted, incurred not for her own benefit but for the advantage of her Continental Allies. Under the negotiations by Mr. Stanley Baldwin on behalf of the British Government, bonds of Great Britain to the total value of \$4,600,000,000 (say £920,000,000 sterling) have been handed over to the Government of the United States. These bonds carry interest at the rate of 3 per cent. for the first ten years, and at 3½ per cent. thereafter. In addition, provision is made for a sinking fund, the operation of which will clear off the entire debt in 62 years, viz., by 1985.

The obligation is a very heavy one, involving the payment within 62 years of no less than \$11,105,965,000, or close upon three times the amount of the principal in interest and redemption. The first payment of \$69,000,000 was made on June 15th, 1923, at a cost of £14,464,000. The second is due on December 15th, 1923, when, in addition to half yearly interest, amounting to \$69,000,000, then falls due the sinking fund instalment of \$23,000,000.

Britain's action is in marked contrast to the inaction of the other European Allies who are heavily indebted to America. According to the War Debt Funding Commission, apart from Great Britain, sixteen countries owe to the United States £1,300,000,000 principal and £240,000,000 interest, of which amounts France accounts for £866,000,000 and Italy £438,000,000.

### **An Example to other Nations.**

Britain, indeed, in cheerfully shouldering a heavy burden, has set other debtor nations an example, which it is perhaps too much to hope they will ever follow. France and our other Continental Allies naturally adopt the attitude that as long as they do not obtain from Germany the reparations to which they consider themselves entitled, they cannot discharge their heavy obligations to Great Britain or America.

Britain, on the other hand, is perfectly prepared to cancel the debts of her European Allies and let bygones be bygones

so long as she is able to secure from Germany by way of reparations sufficient to meet the annual interest on her debt to America. If she can do that, she will be able to give much-needed relief to her taxpayers by cutting down the income tax by 7d. in the £. But the chances seem to be hardly in favour of her obtaining from Germany—after the demands of France and Belgium have been satisfied—anything like the amount required. Therefore she will have to go on paying the United States sums ranging from £35,000,000 a year upwards.

The effect of these payments will be twofold. In the first place the necessity of finding dollars every half year will depreciate the value of sterling in New York. In the second place depreciated sterling currency will greatly increase the cost of American goods, thereby reducing the demand for them. Thus what America gains on the one hand in the shape of interest payments she will lose on the other in a decreased demand for her products and manufactures. Consequently, many influential and far-seeing American bankers are in favour of the cancellation of the British debt. But they are as voices crying in the wilderness. The masses, Shylock-like, demand their pound of flesh. Some day their insistency may give them cause for regret.

### Germany's Plight.

If the situation in Germany is desperate, Germany herself is largely to blame. She made no serious attempts either to meet her admittedly nebulous obligations under the Treaty of Versailles or to set her financial house in order. Instead of imposing on her citizens taxation designed to establish a balance between revenue and expenditure, she resorted to the inevitably disastrous expedient of making both ends meet by the wholesale creation of practically worthless paper money. The Government, in need of funds, discounted Treasury Bills at the Reichsbank, which printed the necessary amount of paper marks. The country was consequently flooded from week to week with enormously increasing supplies of paper currency, until the total notes in circulation reached a fabulous figure. From a pre-war value of a shilling, the gold value of the mark sank until, in October, 1923, no fewer than 125,000,000 marks could be purchased for a penny! No wonder hawkers were able to reap a huge profit by selling million mark notes in the streets of London at a penny apiece!

An attempt is being made to redeem the situation by the creation of a so-called Rentenbank, whose function is to issue rentenmarks redeemable against gold securities. But the emission of such marks will be limited by Germany's attenuated supply of gold or gold securities. Will the volume of new marks be sufficient to go round for international trade transactions, and what is to become of the old paper marks, of which 28,228,815,494,417,000 were outstanding in the middle of October, 1923? Of one thing

one may rest assured, and that is, that Germany cannot see daylight, in a financial sense, until she has securely re-established her currency on a gold basis.

It is surely as much to the interest of France as to that of any of the other expectant allies that Germany's real capacity to pay—as well as a feasible manner of payment—should be closely investigated. Until the overshadowing problem of reparations is settled, Europe will know no real political peace or financial stability.

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## Revolutionaries and British Wealth

By SIR LEO CHIOZZA MONEY.

THE apparent stability of wealth in a great trading nation leads to many misunderstandings. As a matter of fact, the wealth of Britain is no more stable than was that of Venice in the years of glory when annually the Doge espoused the sea. It is only too clear, however, from a multitude of recent utterances, that there are many who believe, or who do their best to make the public believe, that Britain is a naturally rich country, whose position is not only assured, but which has already accumulated by some magical means an enormous amount of wealth which produces, in some also magical way, a great flow of income which needs only to be equally shared out to give comfort and happiness to everybody. I noted a recent utterance in which, at a time of crisis in an important industry, a leader of men cried: "Produce! There is already too much produced." Again and again audiences are told that the country already produces more than is needed, and that all that is wanted is a better distribution of wealth. Other minds direct an onslaught upon what they picture as tremendous accumulations, without making any suggestions as to what is to be done to provide the necessary capital for industry when they have succeeded in destroying existing methods.

If Britain were a Tom Tiddler's Ground, we could afford to view these manifestations with comparative indifference. If we really possessed some great inexhaustible fund of wealth, we could smile at the irresponsible chatter of revolutionaries. Unfortunately, the truth about Britain is that it is not a wealthy country, but one which, although well-to-do when compared with the position which obtained a hundred years ago, is still actually a poor country, which maintains a huge population by means of a peculiar economy of quite recent growth. Perhaps we can effectively remind ourselves of the youth of our comparative advance by recalling that the Romans were in occupation of Britain for about four hundred years, and that Britain has ranked

as a considerable industrial nation for about one-fourth of that time. Only five generations have elapsed since all England and Wales had only six million people—six million very poor people.

In the year 1913 British trade reached its highest record, whether measured in terms of production or in terms of exchange. We then had a very considerable oversea investment. Our shipping was easily first in the world. Our exports had never before been so great. The figures relating to these things look very big, and help the impression that Britain was rolling in wealth. The work done, however, had to provide the living of an enormous population, which then amounted to forty-six millions. While it was a much better living than was possessed by the ten millions of poor people who inhabited England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland in 1750, it did not amount to very much. As a matter of fact the average income per head of population in 1913 was a little over £45 a year. That was all that an equal share-out would have yielded in 1913, even if the Imperial and Local Government had cost us nothing in taxes and rates.

Now £45 per head, or say £225 per annum per family of five, less rates and taxes, did not make a wealthy people even in 1913, when pounds bought more than they do now. I do not propose to offer an estimate of what the average income of British citizens is in 1923, but it is most obvious that, money's worth for money's worth, it is less to-day than it was in 1913. It is only too plain that, with unassailable accuracy, we can offer the statement that in 1923 the British people possess, expressed in the money valuation of 1913, *an average income of much less than £200 per family per annum*. Such is the truth about a share-out. If British wealth conditions were absolutely stable, and if revolutionaries seized British wealth and divided it up, such would be the glorious result. Revolutionaries might ponder the fact, and contrast it with the very truthful statement made by some Members of Parliament that the £400 a year paid as a parliamentary honorarium does not amount to a condition of affluence.

But the winning of this £40 per head per annum is a very complicated matter. There is no Tom Tiddler's Ground. There are not even any safe investments. The people of Britain depend for their present livelihood upon the maintenance of a great overseas trade. By virtue of that trade they gain thousands of shiploads of commodities, which in turn become the basis of both home and overseas trade. To earn the meagre living we have referred to, people engaged in import and export business have to transact nearly £2,000,000,000 of business in a year. They do so by virtue of special knowledge of markets and conditions—knowledge which is by no means easily acquired.

The fact that persons living abroad in foreign countries and British possessions are willing to send to these shores some £1,000,000,000 of raw materials, food, etc., every year is a

remarkable thing and one which does not happen spontaneously. There is nothing "natural" about it; nothing at all resembling the rising of the sun or the falling of the rain. It is a purely artificial thing, which has arisen out of experienced dealings which have established and confirmed the good faith and credit of the British trader.

The imagination boggles at any attempt to conceive what would be the condition of Britain if British credit were forfeited. Any revolutionary blow at our credit would crumble the entire edifice of British trade. No person abroad would be so foolish as to consign shipments of ore or timber, fibre or metal, to a country which had taught the world that it was one in which contracts were no longer expected, and in which no man's property was safe from seizure.

The example of Russia naturally springs to the mind in this connection, but there is no true parallel between British and Russian conditions. Russia is a sparsely populated and enormous area, producing its own food, and capable of sustaining its own people without foreign trade. *Before the war the Russian foreign trade amounted to only 30/- per head of the population, whereas British external trade amounted to £28 per head of the population.* The destruction of Russian credit, therefore, although fraught with terrible consequences for Russia, has not the importance for the Russian people which the failure of British credit would have for us. For Britain the sudden failure of overseas trade which would follow upon subversive action would mean the starvation of millions, and bitter distress for the whole population. Britain, thrown back upon her own resources, could barely sustain fifteen million people in decent comfort. Emigration could not be resorted to, for the world could not suddenly absorb millions of British emigrants. A condition would arise for which history offers no parallel, for never before in the world's history have fifty millions of people been crowded on such a poor area and maintained by foreign trade.

It is to be feared that the true nature of the case is obscured for many by the fact that more people work in purely home industries than in industries which are directly connected with actual exportation and importation. The people working in home industries can easily lose sight of the fact that their work is based upon the results of foreign trade. Thus, a bricklayer may persuade himself that his occupation is purely a home trade unaffected by foreign commerce, when the truth is that without foreign trade as a producer of wealth, his bricklaying would not be needed. So, a hat-maker may believe himself to be working in an independent home industry in forgetfulness of the facts, (1) that his materials are earned by exports, and (2) that his finished articles are bought by many persons who, but for oversea commerce, would not have the means to buy them.



Many of our great industries are entirely or largely built upon material derived from overseas. Cotton, with its working army of 600,000 persons, is an exotic material. The woollen and worsted trades, which employ about a quarter of a million people, would almost entirely fail if restricted to the use of British wool only. The great British brass and galvanising trades would speedily close if deprived of foreign shipments, because our copper and zinc mines have such an insignificant output. Our wood-consuming industries would be of small dimensions if confined to the output of our poor British woodlands. Apart from coal, clay and limestone, indeed, nine-tenths of our materials of industry are earned by British exports.

If any considerable increase is to be made in British wealth and comfort, it will be necessary not only to maintain the great oversea trade of which we have spoken, but to increase it largely. Given the return of peaceful conditions in Europe, the possibilities of such increase are very great. This was sufficiently shown in the half generation immediately preceding the war, when British export trade, despite all competition, made magnificent gains. The continuance of those gains may confidently be looked for as soon as a reparations settlement is arrived at. Those who fear that foreign competition would increase should bear in mind that the world's markets will also increase. In the years before the war we encountered an increasing competition, but nevertheless increased our trade, because markets were widening as never before. The world as a whole has not yet touched the fringe of its possible developments, and there will be plenty of room for the British trader, given the maintenance of British enterprise and British credit.

It would be a thousand pities, therefore, if the possibilities of further development were imperilled by revolutionary propaganda inducing large sections of our people to forget the first conditions of their existence. We have to learn how to produce enormously more than we have yet done if we are to avail ourselves of the opportunities which will arise to increase the British national income. There is not yet, as we have seen, a great division of spoils to quarrel about. Movements for the increase of wages can only be effective when the wage fund is big. Those who counsel producers in good faith should tell them, fairly and squarely, that it is necessary to produce well before there is any great fund to make a claim upon. That is a truth for both employers and employed.

It is worth while to illuminate that fact by reference to the results shown by the Census of Production before the war. Then, it will be remembered, the actual value of the product of British industry was obtained, and as we knew the actual number of persons employed in each industry, we could also tell how much the industries were worth *per worker*, even if there had been no

profit or interest taken by the shareholders. We then saw that the yield of our industries was round about £100 per annum for each worker employed, so that it is only too plain that if the wage-earners had got everything and the profit-takers nothing the product was too poor to give them a good living.

The modest dimensions of the national income, taken as a whole, are accentuated for us by inequitable distribution, and by the flaunting of wealth by a limited number of unduly rich. A vulgarly shining veneer of luxury gives a false impression of abounding wealth, which lends colour to the belief that there is a vast amount of income to re-distribute. The ostentation of a proportion of the unduly rich is the most effective propaganda for subversive ideas.

What society needs to help it to a better production of wealth, and to a better and more equitable distribution of a greater production, is fuller knowledge of what is and what might be. It is a great pity that we do not have a continuous Census of Production, conducted by a permanent Census Office, acting as the eyes and ears of government. *There should be published at frequent intervals full details of the output of every trade, showing clearly how the product of industry is divided between the various agents of production.* The details should be widely and effectively published, so that the nation would know assuredly what wealth was being created, and how that wealth was being shared up. Such publication would be helpful to all parties. It would help the rank and file of industry to obtain their just dues, and it would make it difficult or impossible for wild men to obtain credence for foundationless stories of spoliation. If and when production increased, the available information on the subject would make it plain whether justice was being done in the division of the product of industry, and public opinion would make itself sternly felt when justice failed.

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THE CAPITAL LEVY. By a Capital Levy the Labour Party suggest that it will be possible to reduce the National Debt by £3,000,000,000. Apart from any other consideration, experience goes to prove that the scheme is foredoomed to failure. Mr. Harold Cox, in a book on the subject, shows that, where it has been tried, it has yielded only disappointment to its authors, and in the process has dislocated business and damaged credit. In Germany £1,000,000 was raised against £50,000,000 expected. In Czechoslovakia results were so disappointing that the law was not carried out. In Italy £17,000,000 was raised after three years. In Hungary and Austria it failed, and in Switzerland the proposal brought financial panic, and was defeated by 7 to 1 on the Referendum.

## Money Based on the World's Goods.

By C. H. CHOMLEY.

**D**URING the war, when some forty million people were withdrawn from productive industry to kill or provide the means of killing, poverty and unemployment practically vanished. Outside the beleaguered countries, the mass of the people had more food and better clothing than ever before. Though millions of the best and strongest had gone away to fight, the labour of the people supplied food, clothing and shelter both to the soldiers and the civilians. On the return of the soldiers, and the release of millions from the manufacture of munitions to the production of useful goods, unemployment, poverty and distress began again.

Why should the withdrawal of millions of workers from productive labour abolish poverty? And why, when they were available once more to make wealth, should wealth disappear? One of the stock answers is that during the war we were drawing upon our capital—living upon the past and the future.

This sounds learned and professional, but it explains nothing. We were not living on the future, for a loaf cannot be eaten, a suit worn, nor a shell fired before it is made. There was no accumulation of these things from the past. The food eaten one day, the shells fired, and the clothes worn were made the day or the week or the month before. In Australia and New Zealand during the war there were actually being accumulated huge stocks of wheat and meat and wool, which have hardly been consumed now. Certainly our railways and roads and buildings were falling into disrepair, and they are in disrepair still, but not for want of labour to repair them, for there are a million unemployed. Nor are the means to feed and clothe men engaged in this work wanting, for there is labour available to make everything required to remunerate them, as there was to remunerate soldiers and munition workers during the years of the war.

The root cause of the depression and poverty now prevailing is not want of capital but under-consumption of wealth. Consumption is the key to production. Produce goods, and there is no guarantee that they will be consumed. There may be multitudes of people in dire need of them—starving for bread, shivering for want of clothes and fuel—and yet the man who produces these things may be ruined, because not one of the millions who need them can buy. On the other hand, consumption of existing goods is an absolute guarantee that more will be produced for their replacement; and the reason why there was no poverty during the war is that, wasteful and anti-social though nine-tenths of the consumption was, it nevertheless imperiously called forth production and employed men. Those engaged in fighting, or the trades

ancillary thereto, had the money to purchase food and clothing, and therefore these things were produced and sold. When the fighting ceased the fighting men and munition workers were no longer paid. They, therefore, could not buy; production of things that human beings want—houses, clothes, food, furniture, fuel and the rest—decreased all along the line; the people who had been making them, being no longer paid, could no longer buy, and increasing numbers were whirled into the vicious circle of poverty and unemployment.

### **The Problem to be Faced.**

The problem now facing England and most of the civilised world is how to convert desire for good things into economic demand for them; that is, how to enable them to be paid for; how to increase consumption, and set all the latent forces of production at work. None can dispute that an important factor in doing this is the establishment of a sound money system. Opinions on this subject are as conflicting as they are various. Here it is held that gradual deflation and return to the gold standard are the way of salvation; yet in Germany paper marks have been issued by the billion, and though they are worthless abroad, there is little unemployment in Germany, and a definite increase in tangible wealth has come about. If Germany is wrong in so depreciating the mark that purchase abroad is impossible, England is equally wrong in her worship of a system which makes it impossible for many to buy at home.

In this article I am going to preach economic heresy, asking whether, when orthodoxy has led us to damnation, reasoning people should not at least give heresy an intelligent hearing. By its adoption I shall try to show that, at no cost to anyone, unemployment in the United Kingdom would immediately be wiped out of existence, that profitable markets would be found for the staple products of the Dominions in any quantity, that trade with the backward countries of Europe would be made easy without the need of voting credits, and that the problem of reparations would be in great measure solved to the advantage of France and Germany as well as ourselves.

When we begin to learn political economy we are told that a main function of money is to represent goods and to facilitate their exchange; but we soon learn that money very frequently represents nothing, and that, as a rule, it is not the servant of trade and commerce but its master. Great financiers are able practically to dictate what goods shall be made and sold, and even to decide whether the making and selling of goods shall cease for a time and be replaced by war. This is wrong. The ideal money system would be one under which every exchangeable object had a money token representing it, so that the object should become the property of anyone offering the token in exchange.

### Minimum Prices for Staple Products.

To devise and apply such a system is impossible, but an approach to it can be made by assigning minimum prices to each of a very large number and variety of staple products and useful articles of which the world has never yet had enough to satisfy its needs, though frequently the supply of some of them is far in excess of economic demand. Take bread, for example. Britain has not enough wheat, while it has children hungry—and there are millions of them—yet there is far more wheat on offer than the people can buy. Cotton also. We export cotton goods from this country because there is no demand for much of what we manufacture, yet England has not enough cotton nor linen, while large numbers of people go ragged and dirty and their houses are without sheets or curtains because decent apparel and surroundings are beyond their means.

That is what is meant by saying that the world has never had, and for a long time is not likely to have, enough of the article for which it is proposed to fix a minimum price. The list is a long one, including wheat and all the other food grains, gold, silver, iron and all the other metals, wool, cotton, linen, jute, hemp, etc., tea, coffee, cocoa and sugar, butter and tallow, coal, coke, timber, rubber, cotton seed, copra, salt, and hundreds of other primary products which are not rapidly perishable, and of which standard grades can be fixed. It would also include some manufactured articles which are universally in demand as the raw product of other industries. Among them would probably be flour, tinplate, certain piece goods in cotton and linen, yarns, aniline dyes, steel rails of standard weights, copper and other wire of various gauges, red lead, white lead, ammonia, sulphuric acid, nitric acid, and various universally used articles of metal. The more of such things that could be included in the list of goods for which a minimum price was fixed the more advantageous it would be for a manufacturing country such as England, and the wider would be the basis of the money based upon the goods.

Two questions will now naturally arise—first, upon what principle would the minimum prices for all these articles be determined; and, second, how, when determined, could the price be secured to those who might produce the goods?

The price of any article in the list should be high enough to induce those who normally raise or manufacture things of the kind to turn them out in large quantities. This would involve fixing a higher price than is obtainable in England to-day for many goods in which the market is depressed. Provided the price were sufficient to encourage production, its exact amount, for reasons to be explained later, would not be of vital importance, though, of course, it should not be deliberately put higher than is needed, on the present general price level, to give a fair return to the capital and labour employed.



The more important question is the second—how is the minimum price to be made effective? This, in my scheme, would be accomplished by an undertaking from the British Government to buy any quantities of any articles on the list, delivered into stores at specified places in the United Kingdom, and to pay for them with British Government notes of one pound and upwards to any sum required. Goods would be accepted from any part of the world.

### **No Cost to the Government.**

Though I use the word "pay," it should be noted that payment for these goods delivered into store would cost the British Government nothing. The notes given to the depositors are really in the nature of receipts or warrants for the goods deposited, which would be handed out again on delivery of notes or receipts to the amount originally given in respect of any of them. It is an essential part of the scheme that the Government shall not trade in the goods for which the minimum price is guaranteed, but shall merely receive such quantities of them as it is asked to take in, giving notes in exchange, and that it shall pass the goods out again when notes to the equivalent value are handed in. When prices in the open market are higher than the guaranteed minimum, none of the goods on the list will go into store, but the knowledge that the minimum price is always obtainable will enable producers and manufacturers to go ahead full blast with their industry, undeterred by the fear that the market may collapse, leaving them with unsaleable stocks and forcing them to dismiss their workmen. Not one trade, but a hundred, will be inspired by knowledge of this security; the profits made by these trades and the wages earned in them, will all be in circulation, buying the products of all other industries and thus making profits for them and prosperity for people all round. In these circumstances, is it not demonstrable that unemployment must disappear?

### **An Automatic Check on Inflation.**

It may happen that the English market or the world market cannot absorb immediately the whole product of some industries for which a minimum price is guaranteed. Copper, zinc, silver, or wheat, let us say, are in excess. They accordingly go into store, and notes are issued to their depositors. Suppose that there is such a temporary excess of the articles mentioned that fifty millions or a hundred million pound's worth of notes are issued against them, and go into circulation. The worst that can happen is a temporary inflation, depreciating the value of money, and causing prices to rise. It cannot, however, raise the prices of the articles which exist in quantities exceeding demand, and are consequently stored. No one will pay more for them than the price at which the stores will sell them, and, on the assumption that other goods have become dearer, these dearer goods will be

more profitable to produce. Capital and labour employed in turning out the grain or metals of which there is too much will gradually grow less. The existing stocks will be drawn upon and, as they are depleted, notes paid for them will go out of circulation, and other prices will gradually fall. Thus an extravagant production of one article, or a dozen articles, will automatically cure the mischief it creates, not as it does now, by causing the market in those particular articles to slump, bringing ruin to the producers and inflicting great damage on trade all round, but by making other forms of industry relatively more profitable and consequently more attractive. The wheat grower and the mine owner who has produced in excess of present demand can still get his fixed price, but the man who grows or manufactures something else can get more. Capital and labour will have the opportunity to move soberly and safely from an excessively producing trade, if required, instead of being driven out of it by bankruptcy and dismissal.

Further, it should be mentioned that, if goods of which there is no surplus become relatively dear by inflation of the currency, those which are down to the fixed minimum price become relatively cheap and will attract purchasers. They will, therefore, be bought out of the stores and the inflation will be reduced from both sides at once.

Though I have assumed that such things as grains or metals might be produced on such a scale that they could not be consumed, it is unlikely. If the impoverished peoples of Europe consumed at an equal rate with Australians and New Zealanders, surpluses of things like wheat and wool would be temporary and small. And it would be difficult to oversupply such things as iron, timber and coal were the world's need to become economic demand.

### **Safety for the Banker.**

At present, when nothing but gold commands a certain price in money—as gold, now worth more than the standard price, always does—fertile land and rich mines of industrial metals lie undeveloped because of uncertainty as to price. A farmer asks the banker for an advance, telling him that with the money he can bring new land into cultivation and raise 10,000 bushels of wheat. The banker's reply is: "Yes, you may raise the wheat, but what will the price be? The security is not good enough for the money." To the owner of a silver lead mine, the banker says: "I am satisfied with your reports on the richness of the ore, but lead may fall £5 a ton before you get it. We cannot run the risk."

If the banker knew in advance, and indubitably, that 10,000 bushels of wheat would sell at a minimum for £3,500, and 10,000 tons of lead for £30,000, he could do business with his customers to their mutual advantage and that of the community. The

guaranteed price for other articles besides gold would stimulate industry and minimise risk. The man who could produce useful things would know that he was making money, and would get the help in production from controllers of capital that only money can buy.

The gold standard also involves in its maintenance alternating periods of activity and depression, or boom and burst. Money, based upon gold and legally exchangeable for it, is arbitrarily limited in amount. If all the owners of bankers' money demanded gold for it at the same time, as they are theoretically and legally entitled to do, only a small fraction of them could be satisfied, and there would be universal bankruptcy. Sometimes, as in the Australian crash in 1893, following the boom years, when bankers have been rash and have not checked credits soon enough, this kind of disaster actually occurs. More usually, just when trade and industry are most active, and under a sane monetary system would continue to be so, the guardian angels of the gold fetish do their duty by it and begin to restrict credits. The blows falls alike upon the just and the unjust, the wild speculator who was heading for unavoidable disaster soon or late, and the enterprising trader whom continuance of credit would have allowed to create wealth for the community as well as himself. So, suddenly or gradually, trade and industry are deprived of the money which is their life blood, circulation being too active and blood pressure too high, and depression and unemployment take the place of good times.

If money were based upon hundreds of useful articles whose quantities are limited only by human industry, instead of upon one article—gold—of which the supply is small and cannot be rapidly increased, there would be no need for industry to ride upon a wave whose crest is activity and its trough depression. It could go forward steadily, upon an even keel, controlling the money it required instead of being controlled by it.

### **Goods as a Basis for Money.**

The suggestion that other things than gold should be monetised is not new. But other schemes have been too complicated to execute. This, however, requires nothing but the resolution of a British Government, guided by expert advice in the fixing of the prices.

The fact that the purchase of the world's surplus goods will cost the nation nothing is of vital importance. Opponents of the scheme begin—and usually end—by ridiculing the idea that Britain "can finance the world's industry," "can pay for unlimited quantities" of even the most useful goods. They forget or ignore the radical difference between paying or financing in the ordinary sense, which both involve parting with or risking something costly, and the payment which it is proposed that the

British Government should make for goods delivered into its stores. Here there is no risk; nothing costly is parted with; no obligation is incurred by the Government except that of issuing goods to any applicant who offers notes to the agreed amount in exchange. Faith that this obligation will be observed is indeed essential, and, therefore, only a Government such as that of Britain, which can be trusted to keep faith with depositors of goods, and scrupulously refrain from converting them to its own use or trading in them, could establish confidence in the new money.

In international exchange, notes issued against goods would, at the least, purchase the goods against which they were issued at their face value. Unless some goods were in excess of immediate market needs and were therefore sold into store, no notes in respect of them would be given out. If the notes were given out and went into circulation, it is obvious that stored goods could be purchased with them; for in these goods which the stores had bought because the supply exceeded the demand, the minimum price given by the Government would obviously be the maximum that anyone could obtain. They would be available in exchange for notes at any time.

Herein lies the answer to those who say that the new money would inevitably become depreciated. Because it is turned out by a printing press they instinctively regard it as analogous to the depreciated notes of Russia and Germany, which must be printed in denominations of millions, or taken round in cart-loads to pay for a shilling's worth of goods. In fact the proposed Government notes have nothing in common with those mentioned above. Russian and German notes are issued against nothing; mine are issued against goods. They are tokens for goods, and when the goods have gone the tokens disappear.

### **Help to Trade with Undeveloped Countries.**

Turning now to other aspects of the question, consider the help this new money would give to trade with undeveloped countries with uncertain exchanges and disorganised finance. A ship's cargo arrives from Russia or Poland, of timber, jute, petroleum, or anything else on the list. The ruling market prices may be above those offered by the stores; but the owners of the cargo, who are, perhaps, the foreign shippers themselves, may know very little about British markets. Nevertheless, they need not fail to trade and go empty away. They can obtain the minimum price in notes at the nearest Government store, and with the notes they will buy the British goods of which they are in need. British manufacturers and merchants will increase their sales, and get cash for their wares without trouble or risk from buyers with whom it is now almost impossible to trade. The foreign goods will sell themselves. Owners of British goods will see to it that theirs are sold to eager purchasers who have the money to buy, and

thus our export trade to Europe will be restored.

Thus it is obvious that the difficulties caused by the German exchange will disappear; and we can buy whatever we like of her cheap goods without harming our own producers, since they are always sure of a minimum price. The notes which Germany receives will be available to buy from us, to better her exchange, and to pay reparations to France and ourselves. However they are used, receipt by Germany must help to bring us new customers and employ our people. It is an outstanding advantage of the new currency that it protects British manufacturers under conditions of absolute free trade. So British farmers, too, will have no cause of complaint. All the wool and wheat and butter and cheese of the Dominions can come into this market and all receive a paying price, which will be fixed on the basis of the English farmers' reasonable needs.

### Keeping Prices Steady.

To show that the scheme would keep prices steady, let us suppose that a phenomenal harvest sends a surplus of 20 million quarters into store. Such a surplus would now greatly reduce prices and ruin many farmers. Next year less wheat would be grown and prices would rise very high. Under the new system, in the good year farmers would get the full price for their crop; in the succeeding bad year, consumers would get full value for their money, for profiteers or speculators could not raise the price of the 20 million quarters stored. It would come dribbling out of the Government granaries at precisely the same price as that at which it went in, and the new wheat could sell at no higher price in the same market until the old wheat had all been consumed.

One objection raised by an economist to whom this scheme was submitted is that the mere promise by the Government of minimum prices for any quantity of cotton, coal, iron, etc., would cause such a boom in trade, and such an extension of credits, that all prices would rise above the minimum, which would consequently become ineffective, and that eventually this boom would burst. Then depression would come again. If this should happen, at least the unemployed would vanish for a time—no small blessing in itself—and there would be none of the predicted depreciation of the currency by over-issue of notes, for no goods going down to the minimum price, no notes would be issued. The depression, if it came, would have other causes—the curtailment of credits which could not be redeemed in cash, and the consequent slackening of production and purchasing power. Such a depression on a gold standard may be created at any moment, for there is never sufficient gold to go round if it were asked for, and bankers, in effect, have to make an arbitrary guess as to the disproportion between cash available and credit given that can be safely allowed



to continue, and as to when they should put on the screw. Cash, which is gold only, cannot be created at will.

Cash, on the other hand, which is notes based on goods, can be created when required by producing the goods, and thus a shortage of cash can be quickly remedied. To take a low minimum price when a high price has been ruling may not be pleasant, but it is a much less unpleasant alternative to put iron or wheat into store, thus securing money to pay debts, than to have credit stopped in an acute depression, and to have no certain market at any price for one's wheat or iron.

It is of the utmost importance to remember that the one thing essential to end a financial crisis is money. In present conditions, at such times, it is the hardest of all things to get. Ownership of useful goods and valuable securities will not secure it, for prices tumble down into the depths, securities become worthless, and values melt away. Under the scheme proposed, this cannot happen in regard to any of the goods upon the guaranteed list. They are as good as money, and can be converted into money when required.

### Would Britain Suffer in Exchange ?

There remains to be answered explicitly the objection which has been implicitly answered already, that to issue English pounds in exchange for stored goods must depreciate the pound relatively to other currencies, and thus make it harder for us to discharge debts due to other countries, notably to America. The assumption is that large issues of paper money are the primary cause of unfavourable exchange in the country issuing it. This I believe to be a wrong assumption. Large issues of paper money, in my view, are rather an effect than a cause of bad exchange, of which the main and universal cause is the necessity or the desire to obtain goods or money from other countries without having an equivalent in goods or gold to offer in return.

This was the trouble in Germany. Francs and pounds were imperiously demanded in payment of reparations ; raw material was urgently needed for German factories. These could be bought only with pounds, dollars or francs, and as this money could not be obtained in sufficient quantities by the sale of German goods, it had to be purchased with paper marks. Therefore the printing press was set to work to turn out marks in sufficient quantities to induce the holders of dollars and pounds to part with enough of them to meet immediate German needs. It was the trouble of Germany that created the bad exchange, rather than the bad exchange that created the trouble, though doubtless each reacted on the other.

Everywhere, I believe, it will be found that when exchange is against any country, that country is buying, or has bought, and must pay for, more goods than she can export in return. She

has, therefore, to buy the money of the other country with her own, and must pay the price which the holders demand for it. Consequently she suffers from an unfavourable exchange.

### **The British Debt to America.**

Now, why, if Britain issues large quantities of paper pounds against goods which she holds, will she find it harder than it is now to find dollars to discharge her American debt?

The world's commodities will not come to this country, and the British notes will not be issued, unless those who send the commodities value the money they receive. If the goods do come here, they cannot go to America, where a proportion of them will be required, and they can be obtained from here only by paying for them with British pounds. To obtain these pounds America must give us dollars, or goods, and with the dollars so obtained, and those obtained for British goods of every kind which America requires, our obligations will be discharged. My critics and I stand on common ground in agreeing that, if Britain takes more goods from America at their dollar price than she takes from us, we shall be adding to the size and burden of our debt. What they fail to prove, and what I submit is unprovable, is that we shall make it harder to secure dollars to discharge that debt by issuing pounds against any quantities of useful goods that may be given to us in exchange for pounds. The owners of the goods will take the pounds in exchange, only while they value them more than other money that they might receive instead. They must use the British pounds either here or abroad. If they find it pays them to take our minimum price and spend the British money abroad, it can only be because it is not depreciated. If they spend the money in England it comes into English hands, and is available to English buyers wherewith to buy, at the minimum price, the goods which are stored.

The English pound, based on the world's goods, can never depreciate, because it will always buy goods which are required by the world.

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## **Trade with the Empire.**

### **A Comparison of Pre-War and Post-War Conditions.**

**By DAVID W. CADDICK.**

**T**HE United Kingdom obtains nearly all its jute and wool from Empire sources, which, indeed, supply nearly the entire world's requirements of jute, and 56 per cent. of the world's consumption of wool. Large quantities of mutton and lamb, dairy produce, and fruit are received from Australasia.

For 1922, Canada was the second producer and exporter of wheat\* and was one of the main sources of supply for the United Kingdom. South Africa has very definitely entered the home market for deciduous fruits.

In metallic ores, apart from iron, deposits inside the Empire are important, especially in the case of manganese, tin, zinc, nickel and lead.

From Eastern and Western African possessions, prior to the war, large exports of oleaginous nuts, kernels and seeds were sent to Germany, where they were crushed for making palm-oil, a basis of such products as soap, margarine, and oil-cake. During the war palm-kernels were exported to the United Kingdom, and an arrangement was made whereby the Colonies would impose an export duty of £2 a ton upon palm-kernels sent to foreign countries during the five years following the war.

India and Ceylon supply most of the tea consumed in Europe, America, and the British Dominions. The stoppage of supplies of sugar from enemy countries resulted in stimulating the growth within the Empire. The United Kingdom's imports of sugar from sources within the Empire increased from 4 per cent. in 1913 to over 20 per cent. in 1915. The relative position of British trade with the Empire, before the war and after, is shown in the following table :—

|                                  | Total Exports<br>in £ | To British<br>Empire in £ | Total Imports<br>in £ | From British<br>Empire in £ |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1913 . . .                       | 525,253,595           | 195,312,000               | 768,734,739           | 191,515,895                 |
| 1919 . . .                       | 798,638,362           | 205,622,460               | 1,626,556,212         | 582,170,639                 |
| 1920 . . .                       | 1,334,469,269         | 501,470,423               | 1,932,648,881         | 559,937,041                 |
| 1921 . . .                       | 703,399,542           | 298,616,633               | 1,085,500,061         | 330,781,915                 |
| 1922 . . .                       | 719,507,410           | 285,780,649               | 1,003,098,899         | 318,013,490                 |
| †First 9 months<br>of 1923 . . . | 566,122,381           | —                         | 787,464,274           | —                           |

In 1913 the percentage of United Kingdom exports to countries in the Empire was 37.2 per cent., compared with 37.5 per cent. in 1922.

## India.

India is the best market in the world for British manufactures.

In the last pre-war year, the United Kingdom exports to India were 64 per cent. of the total value received by that country. Figures for 1921-22 show that the percentage is now 57. Trade between India and other parts of the Empire has grown from 6 to 10 per cent. Of textiles, 70 per cent. in weight and 76 per cent. in value of the imports were from the United Kingdom before the war.

\*The total yield of wheat was 399,786,400 bushels, valued at 962,616,200 dollars.

†From 1st April, 1923, the direct foreign trade of the Irish Free State is not included.

## Exports from the United Kingdom to British India.

Produce and Manufacturers of the United Kingdom :—

| 1913.       | 1919.       | 1920.        | 1921.        | 1922.       |
|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|
| £70,273,221 | £70,860,991 | £181,239,634 | £109,022,292 | £91,621,301 |

The largest item in Indian imports from other countries is sugar.

Indian imports of machinery of all kinds are the third item of importance on the list of goods required by the Indian market, following cotton textiles and sugar.

The share (in value) of the United Kingdom was 90 per cent. before the war. American competition is keen in many branches, such as electrical plant, machine tools, saw-milling and wood-working machinery, agricultural machinery, etc. But the total for the United States has declined from 17 to 13 per cent. in the last two years. The pre-war figure was, however, but 3 per cent. German machinery exports to India were chiefly rice mills for Burma, and some oil mill and sugar machinery.

Demand is likely to grow, but competition from Dominion, foreign, and Indian manufacturers will be keen in the future.

At the present time large orders for rails and rolling stock are being executed by British firms. Indian railways are, of course, built to certain standards designed by British engineers, which is an advantage to our manufacturers.

The remarkable development of the Port of Karachi since 1911 deserves comment.

## India's Industries.

India has established cotton mills in Bombay, for the most part owned by natives, whose demand for the abolition of the excise duty in cotton goods is likely to be conceded. Already these are equipped with 6 million spindles and 100,000 looms, giving a yearly output of 600 to 700 million lbs. of yarn, and 1½ billion yards of woven goods. For the inferior kinds of cotton goods, Indian mills produce sufficient to meet the demand. Considerable extensions in the bleaching, dyeing, and even in the calico printing industries are practically certain in the near future. In the neighbourhood of Calcutta, on the banks of the Hughli river, Europeans own jute mills fitted with 850,000 spindles and 40,000 looms, giving employment to 275,000 hands. The material is much used for making gunny bags. Of these, 367 millions were exported in 1913, but this figure was vastly increased by the output resulting from the demand for sand-bags for the trenches. Important metallurgical industries are now established in the area served by the Bengal-Nagpur Railway, to the south-west of Calcutta. They include iron, steel and copper works, with allied industries producing, amongst other specialities, zinc, sulphuric acid, plate, etc. About 2¼ million tons of these manufactures

are carried on the railways every year.\* Extensions made, or provided for, will probably increase the tonnage to 15 millions by 1926.

But Indian industrial development has been slower than might have been expected. For railway extensions alone, the fore-runner of industrial growth, but a small part of the necessary material can be made in the country. During the war Britain could not supply requirements, so that maintenance and renewals fell seriously into arrears.

### Trade with the Dominions.

After allowing for duplicate entries, the net total external trade (imports and exports) of the Dominions increased from £244 millions in 1901 to £542 millions in 1913, imports being £284 millions and exports £271 millions in the last pre-war year.

#### TOTAL IMPORTS INTO THE SELF-GOVERNING DOMINIONS.

|      | Canada<br>(a) | Australia | New<br>Zealand. | Union of<br>South<br>Africa (b) | Newfound-<br>land (c) | Total     |
|------|---------------|-----------|-----------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|
|      | Million £     | Million £ | Million £       | Million £                       | Million £             | Million £ |
| 1901 | 40            | 42        | 12              | 34                              | 2                     | 130       |
| 1913 | 136           | 80        | 22              | 43                              | 3                     | 284       |

#### TOTAL EXPORTS FROM THE SELF-GOVERNING DOMINIONS.

|  | 40 | 50 | 13 | 21 | 2 | 126 |
|--|----|----|----|----|---|-----|
|  | 99 | 79 | 23 | 67 | 3 | 271 |

In 1913, of the total imports of the Dominions, 38 per cent. were from the United Kingdom, whilst 59 per cent. of their exports were sent to this country. When world trade was examined it was found, however, that only 15.8 per cent. of our exports were sent to the five self-governing Dominions, and about 17 per cent. of our imports were received from them. The explanation is in the small populations of these countries, though other reasons must be put forward to account for Britain's large imports of food-stuffs from foreign countries, notably the Argentine, the United States, and Russia.

A disturbing fact was that the value of commodities received from the Dominions exceeded our exports to them by £52 millions : whilst Dominion purchases from foreign countries was £61 millions in excess of the value of products sold by the Dominions to foreign countries.

Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa together bought British goods to the value of £91 millions before the war. Germany and Russia combined purchased from us goods valued at £58 millions.

### Trade with Australia.

The external trade of Australia in 1913 was under £160 millions, imports and exports practically balancing. The United

\*The Tata Iron and Steel Company (Jamshedpur) is easily the most important of these companies, its output being 1½ million tons.



Kingdom sent 51.82 per cent. of the goods received into Australia, and the United States 13.68 per cent.

During 1922-23 the British advantage, reduced during the war, was recovered. Australia is now the second best market for British goods, following India. Exports are sent chiefly to the United Kingdom. Wool, meat and wheat are the principal items; but 51,688 tons of butter were sent in 1922-23, and other dairy produce, fruit, wine, and gold are important exports. United Kingdom exports to Australia in 1922 were valued at £60,457,294, and imports from Australia at £64,863,155.

The value of United Kingdom imports from Australia in 1922 was exceeded only by those from the United States. For the year 1922-1923, ending June 30th, Australian total imports were £131,796,000, and exports were £117,898,000, the adverse balance being, therefore, nearly fourteen millions.

### Local Manufactures.

Inclination is all in favour of fostering and protecting local industries in Australia, but wages and the cost of living are too high for economic production. Yet taxation is now so great, owing to burdens arising from the war, that a large loss of income by a drought might seriously impair national finances. There are, however, as many as 16,281 small factories, employing 386,639 workpeople, established in Australia; but progress during the war was not particularly marked, though the value of the output for 1921-22, at nearly £325 millions, is double the pre-war figure, largely owing to high prices.

About 1,700 different articles are made in the country.

The outlook for the State scheme of merchant shipbuilding started during the war is not at all promising; and the Government-owned line of steamers has been much criticised, though it has not been unsuccessful, and will probably be continued. Australian shipbuilding in 1922 consisted of 16 vessels of 19,865 tons total and 12,330 h.p.

The Broken Hill Proprietary Company, the John Hopkins Co., Lysaght Ltd., and the Queensland Government are all interested in the local manufacturing of steel. Australian engineering firms are now in a position to compete against imported machines and implements. In face of this and United States rivalry, the United Kingdom's import position in machinery, engineering, and allied imports is becoming weak, excepting for steel rails and railway plant. The Commonwealth Government and the Anglo-Persian Oil Company are erecting a refinery near Melbourne. It has always been a remarkable fact that Australia sent wool to Great Britain at the same time that she imported woollen goods. A start has lately been made in woollen manufactures. Since 1914 the number of mills has increased from 22 to 29, and the employees from 3,290 to 5,029.

A company with a million pounds capital is in process of formation for the purpose of buying wool direct from farmers, and converting it into tweeds, blankets, and other woollens. The movement began at Albury, where the first mill will be laid down. Whole clips will be purchased, and all grades as well as waste products will be utilised. Pastoral interests are largely represented in the scheme. The intention is to contract skilled operatives from England.

### Trade with New Zealand.

Pre-war external trade was worth about £45 millions, with exports slightly exceeding imports. Mr. Massey stated in his comments on the Economic Conference that imports and exports for the year ending June 30th, 1923, were each about £47 millions. He also gave the following percentages for imports from Great Britain: machinery 70 per cent., metal manufactures 86 per cent., apparel 76 per cent., textiles 81 per cent., fibres 99 per cent., tobacco 89 per cent., beverages 90 per cent., and jewelry 66 per cent. Of total imports, 74 per cent. were from Great Britain.

Having a small population in comparison to its prosperity, New Zealand is the biggest importing nation in the world, per capita.

On the export side dairy produce has become a large item, owing to the adoption of co-operative methods, and the collapse of supplies from Siberia. For the last fiscal year they were worth about £17,000,000. Exports of butter to the United Kingdom for the year 1921-22 were 43,184 tons, and cheese at 69,380 tons exceeded the quantity received from Canada, and was thirteen times the amount purchased from Holland.

Development of other branches of agriculture has, fortunately, compensated for low prices of wool. These have caused flocks of sheep to decline from 24,798,763 in 1914 to 22,245,473 in 1922—the lowest total since 1908.

In one branch of engineering—motor-cars—the United States surpasses Great Britain, the returns for the last fiscal year showing values of £627,887 from the former and £257,298 from the latter.

### Trade with Canada.

Fifty years ago half the imports of Canada were from the United Kingdom, but our proportion of the growing trade of Canada has steadily declined. By the beginning of the century it had fallen to one quarter. In 1913 it was 20 per cent., and for the twelve months to the end of March, 1922, only 16 per cent.

Exports of vegetable and animal products to United Kingdom for 12 months to March, 1922, amounted to 267 million dollars; in value 46 per cent. above 1914, due to high prices.

Canadian external trade has reached large dimensions in post-war years.

## The British Dominions Year Book 1924

| Year ending 31st July | Imports.     |              | Exports.      |             |
|-----------------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|
| 1921-22               | 730,184,446  | dollars.     | 1,767,567,193 | dollars.    |
| 1922-23               | 880,420,108  | "            | 994,402,364   | "           |
|                       | Imports from | Imports from | Exports to    | Exports to  |
|                       | U.S.A.       | U.K.         | U.S.A.        | U.K.        |
|                       | in dollars.  | in dollars.  | in dollars.   | in dollars. |
| 1922-23               | 595,414,061  | 153,002,578  | 402,156,905   | 386,061,673 |

Thus exports from Canada to this country are nearly as large as to the United States, yet exports from this country to Canada are a little more than a quarter of the value received from the United States. So one-sided an exchange cannot be more than temporary, and Canada is a market where British export trade has great opportunities, especially as a substantial preference is granted on most manufactures from the United Kingdom.

Considering the agricultural expansion of Canada, it is regrettable that imports of farming implements and machinery from the United Kingdom are small. British woollen goods find a ready market because of their high quality. For the first time for many years, large quantities of coal (about 817,000 tons) were imported from Great Britain in 1922.

### New Industries and Branch Factories in Canada.

Bountifully endowed with water power, 90 per cent. of the power generated in central stations in Canada is derived from the use of water as the primary mover. In Quebec new and important industrial towns have sprung up, as the result of the attention given by municipal authorities to the storage and controlling of water power. Of these the best known are Chicoutimi, Drummondville, Grand Mere, Shawinigan, Sherbrooke, and Three Rivers.

The province of Ontario also has many manufacturing centres for pulp and paper making, electro-chemical industries, etc., generally served by water-power. Rates for light and power where the "Hydro" system is applied are claimed to be the lowest in the world, because the municipalities, through their organisation, known as the Hydro-Electric Power Commission of Ontario, decided to supply hydro-electric energy "at cost." Domestic consumers pay  $2\frac{1}{2}$  cents. per kilowatt hour; commercial establishments  $2\frac{3}{4}$  cents. per kilowatt hour; and to industrial concerns the charge works out at  $20\frac{1}{2}$  dollars (£4 8s. 7d. at normal exchange) per horse-power per annum. Altogether the water-power installations in Canada at the end of 1922 were 3,000,000 h.p.

Thus are Quebec and Ontario compensated for their lack of coal.

### American Branch Factories.

To maintain her influence in this leading Dominion, the United Kingdom will be obliged to compete more keenly with the United States in establishing local industries. Already 675 American branch factories are in existence, without counting distributing centres of United States firms in Canada. In 1914 American capital in branch factories in Canada was estimated at 135 million

dollars. By May, 1919, it had grown to 265 million dollars. Of 652 million dollars new capital sent abroad by the United States in 1922 as much as 156 million dollars went to Canada and Newfoundland.\*

Ontario heads the list of provinces favoured by American firms in the question of branch factories, possessing 335 in all. Another 185 are in Toronto, and 75 in Hamilton, where 9,000 hands and 50 million dollars represent America's participation in this direction. Two of the largest American concerns in Canada are the International Harvester Company and the Canadian Westinghouse Company.

Industries recently started by American companies include the making of carpet sweepers, abrasives, snap fasteners, brushes, steel springs, window glass, a copper and brass firm at Toronto; cutlery works at Hamilton and Welland; electric bulbs at Oshawa; hosiery at Guelph; motor cars at Sarnia and Windsor; silk mills at Cowansville; motor tyre works at Hamilton; insulator works at Niagara Falls; silk dyeing and finishing at Drummondville; and textile dyeing at St. Johns

### **Britain's Opportunities.**

Other industries now firmly established are: boots and shoes, leather goods, men's wear, hosiery, hats and caps, hardware, etc. Canadian stores are about half stocked with goods manufactured at home, and "made in Canada" is an idea propagated by the Canadian Manufacturers' Association.

Woollen mills, equipped with the most modern plant, supply at least one-third of the nation's needs. Knitted goods are manufactured at 164 establishments. War-time demands for khaki frieze, serge, hosiery, underwear, puttees and blankets, and reliance on home manufacturers for domestic requirements, have placed the industry on a sound basis.

The number of British branch factories at the end of 1922 was estimated at 270.

Present indications are that 1923 will be notable for the number of United Kingdom branch factories started in the Dominion. Amongst other industrial projects are the manufacture of asbestos products, dyeing and finishing of textiles, and a knitting mill in the province of Quebec. Extensions of the motor car industry are contemplated in Ontario. Optical goods, alloy steel and locks, and other lines are likely to be made in the country. A well-known British firm, already making kid gloves in Quebec, proposes to start a factory for silk gloves in Ontario.

In 1922, 13 small vessels of 17,802 tons gross and 6,250 horse power were built.

\*In 1914 United States investments in Canada were about 750 million dollars. They now amount to 2,500 million dollars. British investments are 2,700 million dollars, about the same as before the war.

**Miscellaneous Developments.**

The entire output of nickel will henceforth be refined in the country by the International Nickel Company, who conduct mining and smelting at Copper Cliff and Creighton.

Believing it to be more economical to manufacture where the metal is mined, they have scrapped their large refinery at Bayonne, New Jersey.

On Prince Edward Island are established flour mills, starch works, and installations for making denatured alcohol from potatoes. Charlottetown's industries consist of a few sawmills, door-making and broom factories; also some lobster packing plants. None of these is of great importance.

**Newfoundland.**

Newfoundland desires both new capital and labour from the United Kingdom. The Armstrong-Whitworth Company is already considering the erection of a new paper mill, which will double the output of the country. Five small vessels, with a total of 409 gross tons, were launched in 1922.

"Trade between Newfoundland and Britain in recent years has shown a progressive decline. Enterprise should pave the way for a great influx of British capital into the country, and a new tide of British immigration."\*

**South Africa.**

The last pre-war year recorded exports of £67 millions, or £24 millions more than the imports. South Africa invariably has a favourable trade balance. During 1920 great quantities of goods were imported, their total weight being 2,073,387 tons, but during the slump of 1921 the amount was reduced to 1,317,405 tons.

Soft goods and apparel, followed by foodstuffs, machinery, motor-cars, and boots and shoes are the main imports. The United States has been generally second to the United Kingdom since the war, and German exports to South Africa have not yet recovered. American specialities imported include motor cars, typewriters, and cash registers. British trade is usually good in the sale of boots, rubber shoes, rifles, typewriters, cameras, and motor lorries, and in electrical and mining machinery, petrol and oil engines.

The United States competes severely in such lines as opticians' goods, bolts and nuts, fencing wire, corsets, iron bedsteads, water-paints, windmills, rubber conveyor plants, photographic films, tramway rolling stock, motor bicycles, and silk hosiery.

Owing to large areas and a scattered population, the cost of transport to towns near the big ports, by sea from Europe or America, is cheaper than internal distribution by railways. It is even cheaper to import raw materials in many cases. The need for imported goods has led to an excessive number of dis-

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\*Sir Patrick T. McGrath, President of the Legislature Council of Newfoundland, in an interview, November, 1922.



tribution agencies, both wholesale and retail, whose share of the profits is somewhat resented by consumers. Local industries are desired. The problem of many small branch factories, thereby reducing transport charges, but burdening the cost of production by administration expenses, has to be overcome.

In the Transvaal and Orange Free State skilled labour is reserved to "whites." The Kaffir receives high wages compared with those paid in India and China, partly because the cost of living is high, also because inducements must be offered him to leave the land. Special attention is being given by the Government to iron and steel production. The four existing firms have a combined output of 22,475 tons (1921). Hoping to attract capital to the industry, a bounty, starting at 15/- per ton in 1924-5, and falling 2/6 per annum until 1932, is suggested as a means of encouragement. On the general question of transport in South Africa it has been shown that for traffic below 1,000 tons a month animal transport is the cheapest, costing 6d. per ton mile. Railway costs vary with the initial capital expenditure, and range from 6.65d. to 8.80d. per ton mile, whilst motor transport costs 9d. According to the sixth industrial census taken in the Union of South Africa for June, 1920, to June, 1921, there were 7,005 factories established, with land and buildings valued at £18,702,706, and machinery plant and tools at £25,620,168. The combined output for the year was worth £98,000,000. Since 1915-16, when the first census was taken, the growth has been rapid; at that time land and buildings of 3,998 factories were valued at £11,774,671, plant at £15,777,237, and output at £40,434,000. Employees numbered 179,819; Europeans being 69,962. Their wages in the aggregate were £21,906,000. Mines are not included in the census.

Amongst other industries, rubber is manufactured at Howick, carbide at Ballengeich, in Natal, coke, sulphate, creosote, etc., at the Burnside Colliery, and starch in a factory at Germiston, Transvaal. The last is a most promising industry, as local maize is used to make high quality starch and cornflour, and it is thought that ultimately a satisfactory trade in home and export makes can be built up.\* At Klip River there are paper mills equipped with up-to-date plant, where a high-grade wrapping paper is being produced. Durban possesses forty factories of various kinds. One of the latest is a foundry for casting Kaffir iron pots, stones, ploughshares, and similar articles.

In a country where heavy labour is performed by "blacks," industrial expansion has not been rapid enough to give full employment to the European population—small as it is. The number of "poor whites" is the most deplorable result of retarded progress in South African industrial developments.

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\*At the Economic Conference, Mr. Burton, the South African representative, hinted that a British preference on maize would be appreciated.

# TRADE WHEEL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE AND THE OVERSEAS DOMINIONS



## KEEP THE DOLLARS CIRCULATED IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE

How the *Standard* of Montreal views the question of inter-Empire trade.

### Key to the Wheel of British Empire Trade.

1. WHEAT—British Isles, Canada, Australia and South Africa.
2. CORN—East and South Africa, and Australia.
3. BARLEY—British Isles and Canada.
4. OATS—British Isles and Canada.
5. RYE—Canada.
6. FLAX—Ireland and Canada.
7. COTTON—British West Indies ; East, West and South Africa ; Australia.

8. TOBACCO—South Africa, British West Indies, Canada and Australia.
9. CATTLE—British Isles ; East and South Africa ; Australia, New Zealand, Canada and British Guiana.
10. HOGS—Canada, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand and British Isles.
11. SHEEP, WOOL—British Isles, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand and Canada.
12. FISH—Newfoundland, Canada and British Isles.
13. IRON—British Isles, Newfoundland, Canada, South Africa and Australia.
14. COPPER—Canada, Rhodesia and Australia.
15. NICKEL—Canada and South Africa.
16. TIN—Straits Settlements and England.
17. GOLD—South and West Africa, Australia, and Canada.
18. SILVER, LEAD and ZINC—Canada and Australia.
19. PRECIOUS STONES—South Africa, Burma and British Guiana.
20. COAL—British Isles, Canada, South Africa and Australia.
21. HYDRO POWER—Canada, British Guiana, Tasmania, New Zealand and South Africa.
22. OIL, BITUMEN—Canada and Trinidad.
23. TIMBER, WOOD—Canada, British West Indies, Australia, West Africa and Newfoundland.
24. COFFEE—East Africa, British West Indies.
25. TEA—Ceylon.
26. SUGAR—British West Indies, Australia and Africa.
27. APPLES—Canada, South Africa, Australia and British Isles.
28. GRAPES, WINE—South Africa, Australia and Canada.
29. CITROUS FRUITS—West, East and South Africa ; Australia and Jamaica.
30. BANANAS—British West Indies ; West, East and South Africa ; Eastern Islands, and British Honduras.
31. SPICES—Eastern Islands.
32. RUBBER—Straits Settlements, Ceylon, British West Indies and Africa.
33. NUTS—West, East and South Africa ; British West Indies ; Eastern Islands.
34. COCOA—West Africa and British West Indies.

### EMPIRE PREFERENCE.

A Memorandum in regard to Preference accorded to United Kingdom and Colonial Products in the Dominions, Crown Colonies and Protectorates, drawn up by the British Empire Producers' Organisation, shows :—

AUSTRALIA.—In introducing the present Australian Customs Tariffs, which came into operation on 25th March, 1920, the

Commonwealth Minister of Trade and Customs summarised the degree of preference accorded under the British Preferential Tariff of the Australian Customs Tariff as follows:—

|                         | Per cent.     | No. of Items. |
|-------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Preference of . . . . . | 5 . . . . .   | 24            |
| " . . . . .             | 10 . . . . .  | 367           |
| " . . . . .             | 12½ . . . . . | 24            |
| " . . . . .             | 15 . . . . .  | 136           |
| " . . . . .             | 20 . . . . .  | 32            |
|                         | Items         | 583           |

The Tariff was modified during its discussion by the House of Representatives, but in its final form, as assented to on 16th December, 1921, the above figures are not substantially affected.

BRITISH WEST INDIAN COLONIES (EXCEPT BERMUDA).—The preference amounts roughly to 50 per cent. of the duties levied on foreign goods in the case of Barbados, British Guiana, British Honduras, and Trinidad; to 33½ per cent. of these duties in the case of the Leeward and Windward Isles; and to 25 per cent. in the case of Jamaica and the Bahamas.

SOUTH AFRICA, BASUTOLAND, BECHUANALAND AND SWAZILAND.—The general rate of duty is 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, reduced to 17 per cent. *ad valorem* for goods of Empire origin. For goods subject to special rates of duty, a rebate of 3 per cent. *ad valorem* is accorded in the majority of cases.

NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN RHODESIA.—The general duty is 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, reduced to 9 per cent. for goods of Empire origin. No preference is accorded in the Congo Basin of Northern Rhodesia.

CYPRUS.—Cyprus grants a general preference of 16⅔ per cent. to Empire goods, with 33½ per cent. on clocks, musical instruments, beer, cotton and woollen goods, dyes, furniture and some other articles, 40 per cent. on wine (other than sparkling) and 5 per cent. on spirits.

FIJI.—Fiji gives a preference of 45 to 50 per cent. on Empire goods with a few variations.

NEW ZEALAND.—The present Tariff grants preferential rates of duty to British goods in 427 items out of the total number of 644 Tariff items. In the majority of items under which preference is accorded, it ranges from 10 per cent. *ad valorem* to 20 per cent. *ad valorem*.

CANADA.—The amount of preference amounts, speaking generally, to a reduction of one-third of the duty imposed under the "General" Tariff. The preference (*i.e.*, the difference between the "General" duty and the "Preferential" duty) on many important classes of British goods amounts to 10 per cent. *ad valorem*.

## Board of Trade Returns.

THOUGH the trade returns for nine months to the end of September show a slight advance in values on those for the corresponding period of 1922, and the hope was generally expressed in commercial and financial circles during October that the turn for the better had definitely come, very little comfort is to be derived from a study of the figures for either the month or the three quarters of the year. In September, as compared with August, imports were down 6.1 per cent., exports were up 6.2 per cent. and re-exports increased by 32.3 per cent. As against September, 1922, imports were up 8.4 per cent., exports by 2.1 per cent. and re-exports by 27.0 per cent. For the nine months of 1923, compared with 1922, imports increased 8.1 per cent., exports 5.8 per cent. and re-exports 11.5 per cent. Exact comparisons are difficult, because after April 1st the foreign trade of the Irish Free State was not included in the British returns, whilst British trade with the Free State went to swell the total of British exports. Of the increase in imports in the third quarter of the year, it is estimated that two-thirds are probably to be accounted for by the entry of imports from Southern Ireland. Against this has to be set the direct imports into Southern Ireland from overseas. The "Board of Trade Journal," says "it may be not very far from the facts to assign about half the increase in the volume of imports to the alterations in the scope of the record and half to an increase in the trade during the period," and on this hypothesis there would be a reduction in imports of about 11 per cent. With regard to exports, the increase of 2 per cent. in the third quarter of the year is, by a similar calculation as to the Irish Free State, turned into a decrease of 2 per cent. It is necessary to remember this change in the character of the trade returns if comparisons with previous years are not to prove fallacious. Of the manufactured articles imported during this most difficult time, the increase has been sufficiently serious to induce many to lend ear to suggestions of protectionist measures, which at any time in the last fifty years would have been instantly rejected. At the end of October, Mr. Baldwin definitely declared in favour of a tax on imports of manufactures which are responsible for the greatest amount of unemployment among the people. On the export side, the increase in coal has, of course, been largely accounted for by the French occupation of the Ruhr. The seriousness of the fall in the value of cotton manufactures exported is emphasised by the decline, and consequent increase in the price, of American cotton supplies. The shipbuilding returns given on another page are reflected in the Board of Trade export figures by a decline in September alone of nearly 2½ millions sterling. [October trade returns are summarised in "Events While Printing."]



# The British Dominions Year Book 1924

## ANALYSIS OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The following tables show the value of the external trade of the United Kingdom during nine months ended 30th September, 1923, compared with the same period in 1922.

### IMPORTS (Value C.I.F.\*)

|                                                                             | NINE MONTHS ENDED 30th SEPTEMBER. |              |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|
|                                                                             | 1922.                             | 1923.        |
| I.—FOOD, DRINK, AND TOBACCO :                                               | £                                 | £            |
| A. Grain and Flour . . . . .                                                | 76,681,964                        | 71,970,306   |
| B. Feeding-Stuffs for Animals . . . . .                                     | 3,789,157                         | 4,284,876    |
| C. Meat . . . . .                                                           | 78,829,045                        | 85,874,319   |
| D. Animals, Living, for Food . . . . .                                      | 1,501,053                         | 7,309,563    |
| E. Other Food and Drink, Non-Dutiable . . . . .                             | 102,589,615                       | 109,041,767  |
| F. " " " Dutiable . . . . .                                                 | 70,175,279                        | 82,907,170   |
| G. Tobacco " " " . . . . .                                                  | 12,525,051                        | 10,630,993   |
| Total, Class I. . . . .                                                     | 346,041,164                       | 372,018,994  |
| II.—RAW MATERIALS AND ARTICLES MAINLY UNMANUFACTURED :                      |                                   |              |
| A. Coal . . . . .                                                           | 38                                | 7,793        |
| B. Other Non-Metallic Mining and Quarry Products and the like . . . . .     | 3,876,630                         | 4,232,817    |
| C. Iron Ore and Scrap . . . . .                                             | 3,456,321                         | 5,908,419    |
| D. Non-Ferrous Metaliferous Ores and Scrap . . . . .                        | 5,389,614                         | 9,138,643    |
| E. Wood and Timber . . . . .                                                | 25,178,310                        | 33,448,489   |
| F. Raw Cotton and Cotton Waste . . . . .                                    | 54,202,465                        | 47,609,135   |
| G. Wool, Raw and Waste, and Woollen Rags . . . . .                          | 50,312,192                        | 41,384,328   |
| H. Silk, Raw, Knubs and Noils . . . . .                                     | 1,586,156                         | 1,129,107    |
| I. Other Textile Materials . . . . .                                        | 7,218,692                         | 7,564,110    |
| J. Oil Seeds, Nuts, Oils, Fats, Resins and Gums . . . . .                   | 28,398,499                        | 34,198,418   |
| K. Hides and Skins, Undressed . . . . .                                     | 10,912,999                        | 12,664,960   |
| L. Paper-making Materials . . . . .                                         | 6,686,035                         | 8,577,021    |
| M. Rubber . . . . .                                                         | 5,064,237                         | 8,449,568    |
| N. Miscellaneous Raw Materials and Articles mainly Unmanufactured . . . . . | 6,828,270                         | 7,686,274    |
| Total, Class II. . . . .                                                    | 209,110,458                       | 221,999,082  |
| III.—ARTICLES WHOLLY OR MAINLY MANUFACTURED :                               |                                   |              |
| A. Coke and Manufactured Fuel . . . . .                                     | 23,020                            | 10,938       |
| B. Earthenware, Glass, Abrasives, etc. . . . .                              | 5,107,795                         | 5,447,481    |
| C. Iron and Steel and Manufactures thereof . . . . .                        | 7,471,954                         | 10,297,072   |
| D. Non-Ferrous Metals and Manufactures thereof . . . . .                    | 13,286,210                        | 18,124,190   |
| E. Cutlery, Hardware, Implements, and Instruments . . . . .                 | 4,572,279                         | 5,085,472    |
| F. Electrical Goods and Apparatus . . . . .                                 | 998,463                           | 1,640,108    |
| G. Machinery . . . . .                                                      | 6,039,685                         | 6,972,978    |
| H. Manufactures of Wood and Timber . . . . .                                | 2,839,300                         | 3,377,237    |
| I. Cotton Yarns and Manufactures . . . . .                                  | 5,055,870                         | 6,453,185    |
| J. Woollen and Worsted Yarns and Manufactures . . . . .                     | 6,766,586                         | 8,577,468    |
| K. Silk and Silk Manufactures . . . . .                                     | 16,020,072                        | 16,364,824   |
| L. Manufactures of other Textile Materials . . . . .                        | 7,984,648                         | 10,329,078   |
| M. Apparel . . . . .                                                        | 10,672,000                        | 12,614,334   |
| N. Chemicals, Drugs, Dyes and Colours . . . . .                             | 8,343,644                         | 9,998,879    |
| O. Oils, Fats and Resins, Manufactured . . . . .                            | 31,635,461                        | 26,865,903   |
| P. Leather and Manufactures thereof . . . . .                               | 8,132,697                         | 8,833,431    |
| Q. Paper and Cardboard . . . . .                                            | 8,962,563                         | 9,587,321    |
| R. Vehicles (including Locomotives, Ships and Aircraft). . . . .            | 5,050,321                         | 5,610,374    |
| S. Rubber Manufactures . . . . .                                            | 4,376,185                         | 3,889,146    |
| T. Miscellaneous Articles, mainly or wholly Manufactured . . . . .          | 17,429,406                        | 19,423,460   |
| Total, Class III. . . . .                                                   | 170,768,159                       | 189,502,879  |
| IV.—ANIMALS, NOT FOR FOOD . . . . .                                         | 271,661                           | 1,065,123    |
| V.—PARCEL POST, NON-DUTIABLE ARTICLES . . . . .                             | 2,022,520                         | 2,878,196    |
| Total . . . . .                                                             | £728,213,962                      | £787,464,274 |

\*The values of the Imports represent the cost, insurance and freight ; or, when goods are consigned for sale, the latest sale value of such goods.

# Board of Trade Returns

## EXPORTS (Value F.O.B.\*).

|                                                                             | PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. |                  | FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE. |               |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|
|                                                                             | 1922.                                           | 1923.            | 1922.                             | 1923.         |
| <b>I.—FOOD, DRINK, AND TOBACCO :</b>                                        |                                                 |                  |                                   |               |
| A. Grain and Flour . . . . .                                                | £ 2,226,085                                     | £ 3,078,514      | £ 1,828,018                       | £ 1,222,924   |
| B. Feeding-Stuffs for Animals . . . . .                                     | 1,419,517                                       | 1,236,874        | 140,615                           | 111,720       |
| C. Meat . . . . .                                                           | 725,537                                         | 916,158          | 2,330,163                         | 2,374,841     |
| D. Animals, Living, for Food . . . . .                                      | 24,254                                          | 117,696          | —                                 | —             |
| E. Other Food and Drink, Non-Dutiable . . . . .                             | 18,185,349                                      | 20,154,637       | 7,152,344                         | 4,258,878     |
| F. " " " Dutiable . . . . .                                                 | —                                               | —                | 5,083,791                         | 6,962,403     |
| G. Tobacco " " " . . . . .                                                  | 4,469,227                                       | 4,954,317        | 814,556                           | 816,543       |
| Total, Class I. . . . .                                                     | 27,049,969                                      | 30,458,190       | 17,349,487                        | 15,747,309    |
| <b>II.—RAW MATERIALS AND ARTICLES MAINLY UNMANUFACTURED :</b>               |                                                 |                  |                                   |               |
| A. Coal . . . . .                                                           | 51,410,935                                      | 75,395,567       | —                                 | —             |
| B. Other Non-Metallic Mining and Quarry Products and the like. . . . .      | 1,253,385                                       | 1,367,631        | 456,202                           | 512,382       |
| C. Iron Ore and Scrap . . . . .                                             | 454,671                                         | 405,086          | 12,559                            | 86            |
| D. Non-Ferrous Metalliferous Ores and Scrap . . . . .                       | 4,408,724                                       | 1,753,221        | 290,265                           | 145,400       |
| E. Wood and Timber . . . . .                                                | 261,504                                         | 324,433          | 465,262                           | 420,806       |
| F. Raw Cotton and Cotton Waste . . . . .                                    | 774,246                                         | 1,223,436        | 3,786,861                         | 6,114,322     |
| G. Wool, Raw and Waste, and Woollen Rags . . . . .                          | 5,617,640                                       | 7,316,425        | 19,920,519                        | 22,995,612    |
| H. Silk, Raw, Knubs and Noils . . . . .                                     | 47,965                                          | 87,831           | 52,751                            | 61,316        |
| I. Other Textile Materials . . . . .                                        | 678,416                                         | 431,037          | 1,052,399                         | 1,299,835     |
| J. Oil Seeds, Nuts, Oils, Fats, Resins, and Gums . . . . .                  | 3,967,419                                       | 4,208,021        | 2,895,800                         | 2,976,642     |
| K. Hides and Skins, Undressed . . . . .                                     | 1,296,686                                       | 1,819,626        | 6,205,835                         | 7,301,986     |
| L. Paper-making Materials . . . . .                                         | 908,197                                         | 1,127,044        | 27,640                            | 26,314        |
| M. Rubber . . . . .                                                         | 69,133                                          | 97,136           | 3,552,090                         | 8,041,005     |
| N. Miscellaneous Raw Materials and Articles mainly Unmanufactured . . . . . | 2,061,903                                       | 3,024,677        | 1,773,068                         | 1,852,435     |
| Total, Class II. . . . .                                                    | 73,210,824                                      | 98,582,111       | 40,491,251                        | 51,748,184    |
| <b>III.—ARTICLES WHOLLY OR MAINLY MANUFACTURED :</b>                        |                                                 |                  |                                   |               |
| A. Coke and Manufactured Fuel . . . . .                                     | 3,629,745                                       | 7,035,684        | —                                 | —             |
| B. Earthenware, Glass, Abrasives, etc. . . . .                              | 8,271,852                                       | 8,717,415        | 86,279                            | 100,949       |
| C. Iron & Steel & Manufactures thereof . . . . .                            | 44,698,790                                      | 54,946,605       | 102,967                           | 142,496       |
| D. Non-Ferrous Metals and Manufactures thereof . . . . .                    | 8,536,520                                       | 10,614,418       | 2,963,625                         | 2,002,186     |
| E. Cutlery, Hardware, Implements, and Instruments . . . . .                 | 4,805,132                                       | 5,296,781        | 784,327                           | 885,706       |
| F. Electrical Goods and Apparatus . . . . .                                 | 5,382,340                                       | 6,039,466        | 130,673                           | 73,991        |
| G. Machinery . . . . .                                                      | 37,809,217                                      | 33,627,815       | 822,713                           | 823,088       |
| H. Manufactures of Wood and Timber . . . . .                                | 973,004                                         | 1,258,127        | 200,408                           | 244,459       |
| I. Cotton Yarns and Manufactures . . . . .                                  | 140,920,847                                     | 132,909,538      | 1,089,319                         | 1,417,403     |
| J. Woollen and Worsted Yarns and Manufactures . . . . .                     | 43,963,517                                      | 47,894,689       | 863,599                           | 967,171       |
| K. Silk and Silk Manufactures . . . . .                                     | 1,796,612                                       | 1,462,894        | 3,416,289                         | 2,543,196     |
| L. Manufactures of other Textile Materials . . . . .                        | 16,556,397                                      | 17,491,151       | 1,398,487                         | 1,621,072     |
| M. Apparel . . . . .                                                        | 16,360,051                                      | 19,347,756       | 914,385                           | 828,422       |
| N. Chemicals, Drugs, Dyes and Colours . . . . .                             | 15,256,693                                      | 18,847,686       | 1,129,477                         | 936,811       |
| O. Oils, Fats and Resins, Manufactured . . . . .                            | 4,394,173                                       | 5,012,366        | 2,087,147                         | 2,458,178     |
| P. Leather and Manufactures thereof . . . . .                               | 3,689,380                                       | 4,144,865        | 1,092,025                         | 977,458       |
| Q. Paper and Cardboard . . . . .                                            | 4,722,853                                       | 6,169,497        | 189,940                           | 222,204       |
| R. Vehicles (including Locomotives, Ships and Aircraft) . . . . .           | 39,518,301                                      | 22,163,188       | 226,041                           | 526,517       |
| S. Rubber Manufactures . . . . .                                            | 3,820,964                                       | 3,934,804        | 298,789                           | 182,291       |
| T. Miscellaneous Articles, mainly or wholly Manufactured . . . . .          | 20,407,859                                      | 21,853,115       | 2,213,876                         | 2,356,819     |
| Total, Class III. . . . .                                                   | 425,514,247                                     | 428,767,830      | 20,010,366                        | 19,310,417    |
| <b>IV.—ANIMALS, NOT FOR FOOD . . . . .</b>                                  | <b>1,113,177</b>                                | <b>869,036</b>   | <b>22,422</b>                     | <b>51,981</b> |
| <b>V.—PARCEL POST, NON-DUTIABLE ARTICLES . . . . .</b>                      | <b>7,835,550</b>                                | <b>7,445,208</b> | <b>—</b>                          | <b>—</b>      |
| Total . . . . .                                                             | £534,723,767                                    | 566,122,381      | 77,873,526                        | 86,857,891    |

\*The values of the Exports represent the cost and the charges of delivering the goods on board the ship, and are known as the "free on board" values.

## The Labour Year.

By ANTHONY HILL, B.Sc. (Econ.)

THE year 1922 in Great Britain was one of partial recovery from the profound industrial depression of 1921, and the period following the after-the-war "boom," a year of gradual, if tortuous recuperation. The British Dominions showed, on the whole, improving trade and good harvests. The past year, 1923, has not entirely belied the hope of improvement, but, it must be admitted, progress has been disappointingly slow. Many industries, owing to the sacrifice of masters and men alike, have once more been placed upon an economic basis; but that full recovery is still far off is proved by the fact that there are still (October, 1923) some million and a quarter persons in the country without employment. No hope of general recovery is entertained till Europe settles down.

It must be remembered that, whereas those countries which possess greatly impaired currencies have experienced good trade and little unemployment, they have secured these benefits at the expense of the rentier class and of national finance. On the other hand, the countries with relatively stable currencies have had a less satisfactory year of trade, but have attained to a sounder financial position.

### Unemployment.

Employment at the end of 1922 was still bad generally (though an appreciable improvement was shown as compared with the beginning of the year). The proportion unemployed in industries covered by the Unemployment Insurance Act (numbering some  $11\frac{3}{4}$  millions of workpeople) was 12.4 per cent. Up to the end of June, 1923, slight improvement is to be seen, and this figure dropped to 11.0. Since then the amount of unemployment has been increasing (11.4 at the end of September), and it is to be feared that the percentage figure, in spite of numerous relief works adopted by local and national bodies, will attain a yet higher point this winter than that shown at the end of 1922. Indeed, the Parliamentary Labour Party has taken the view that the measures adopted to meet the situation are inadequate in their scope and application. Certainly no government can afford to neglect the potential menace to internal peace which lies in a standing army of a million persons out of work.

The extreme trade depression of the last  $2\frac{1}{2}$  years may rightly be regarded as a product of the great war; but the war has only aggravated, not created, the unemployment problem. Before the war, taking good and bad years together, some 500,000 work-

people were unemployed on the average. Alternation of periods of activity and depression is the normal experience of almost all our industries. The facts governing this alternation—the fundamental causes of the unemployment of ordinary times—have not been sufficiently investigated, and the suggestion of the Industrial League and Council for an inquiry by industries into this evil is of value. (Vide *Times*, March 5th, 1923.)

Professor Keynes (letter to the *Times*, February 14th, 1923) has suggested that the problem of unemployment is already in part a problem of population.

"Even though we may still hope to get relief from the progress of science, the accumulation of capital, and more good-will and skill, in their respective functions, from workmen and from employers; yet, if the young men entering on their working life continue to exceed in number the old men completing theirs by 100,000 to 250,000 every year, sooner or later knowledge, saving, industry and skill may be outpaced, and the standard of life decline."

With this view, Sir William Beveridge is at variance. At the British Association (Liverpool, September, 1923) he contended that there was nothing to suggest that Europe had reached its economic climax. Indeed for Great Britain, at least, surely for many years to come, there lies within the bounds of this Empire, with its vast undeveloped lands and resources, a real hope of solving the problem of our chronic unemployment?

### Retail Prices.

The general level of retail prices, which reached its highest point in November, 1920, has since then, with occasional setbacks, shown a fairly consistent decline. At 31st December, 1921, the cost of maintaining unchanged the pre-war standard of living of working class families as estimated by the Ministry of Labour (for full details of the methods employed in computing the index numbers, see the "*Labour Gazette*" for February, 1921 and July, 1923), was about 92 per cent. above the level of July, 1914. The decline, with but slight check, was continued in 1922 till the increase at the close of the year, over July, 1914, stood at 78 per cent. At October 1st, 1923, the increase amounts to 75 per cent., the first nine months of this year, therefore, showing a decline of 3 points, while during the year (in June and July) the figure has been as low as 69.

It must be noted that no allowance is made in these figures for any alterations in the standard of living, as to which trustworthy statistics are not available.

In view of the use to which these figures have constantly been put of late—the adjustment of wages by the movement of the cost of living index (vide the "*Dockers' Revolt*")—Sir Josiah Stamp's warning to the Association of British Chambers of

Commerce, amplified in his letter to the *Times* of January 18th, 1923, was timely.

"Any adjustment of wages by prices," he writes, "without reference to the total national production (per head), is an attempt to share out what may never have been produced, and must lead straight to disaster and unemployment." Professor Bowley (in an article in the *Times* of January, 17th, 1923) is equally definite. "That wages can be standardised at the weekly rates of 1914, neither below nor above, and that at the same time the supply of labour should fit the demand for it, is, of course, impossible." Yet it must be admitted that this method of wage regulation has made the automatic general reduction in the past  $2\frac{1}{2}$  years possible, with less serious disturbance or discontent than might have been expected.

### Wages.

Since the beginning of 1923 further changes in the rates of wages, reported to the Ministry of Labour, have resulted in a net reduction of over £500,000 in the wages of nearly 3,200,000 work-people, and a net increase of over £300,000 in the weekly wages of 1,129,000 workpeople. The "Ministry of Labour Gazette" shows in the following table the effect of the changes from January to September.

#### SUMMARY OF CHANGES, JANUARY to SEPTEMBER, 1923.

| Group of Industries.                         | Approximate Number of Work-people affected by net |            | Net Amount of Change in Weekly Wages. |            |
|----------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|------------|---------------------------------------|------------|
|                                              | Increases.                                        | Decreases. | Increases.                            | Decreases. |
| Building . . . . .                           | 4,700                                             | 441,000    | £ 900                                 | £ 72,400   |
| Mining and Quarrying . . . . .               | 935,000                                           | 16,000     | 267,400                               | 2,600      |
| Iron and Steel . . . . .                     | 146,000                                           | 6,000      | 31,600                                | 1,200      |
| Engineering and Ship-building . . . . .      | 5,000                                             | 156,000    | 550                                   | 27,700     |
| Other Metal . . . . .                        | 29,700                                            | 118,000    | 3,150                                 | 23,800     |
| Textile . . . . .                            | 1,550                                             | 191,000    | 200                                   | 17,500     |
| Clothing . . . . .                           | 1,000                                             | 491,000    | 30                                    | 80,300     |
| Transport . . . . .                          | 2,700                                             | 753,000    | 275                                   | 123,900    |
| Paper, Printing, &c. . . . .                 | —                                                 | 139,000    | —                                     | 17,200     |
| Furniture and Woodworking . . . . .          | 100                                               | 53,000     | 15                                    | 11,400     |
| Chemical, Glass, Brick, Pottery, &c. . . . . | 1,150                                             | 123,000    | 320                                   | 21,500     |
| Food, Drink and Tobacco . . . . .            | 100                                               | 239,000    | 10                                    | 32,700     |
| Public Utility Services . . . . .            | 2,000                                             | 325,000    | 300                                   | 58,000     |
| Other . . . . .                              | —                                                 | 109,000    | —                                     | 14,100     |
| Total . . . . .                              | 1,129,000                                         | 3,160,000  | 304,750                               | 504,300    |



### Mining Industry.

In the mining industry some feelings of unrest have been prevalent. In March, 1923, Mr. Bonar Law refused to adopt the suggestion of the deputation of the Mining Federation that the Government should interfere in the wages system. He took an optimistic view of the immediate future of the industry and of the effects on wages of the recovery at that time in the export trade. The miners' grievance against the 1921 agreement is that it does not assure them a living wage in a time of acute depression, while a large output does not necessarily ensure high wages—as they were led to expect it would. Some of the advanced men in the Labour movement have taken advantage of the position to foster discontent against the agreement as a whole and the principle on which it is based. They have counselled the miners to terminate the agreement for the simple and only reason that it has a profit-sharing basis. It is, therefore, the more satisfactory to note that the Conference of the Miners' Federation (at Folkestone, July, 1923) refused to vote on the direct issue of ending or continuing the national agreement with the employers. Instead, it instructed the Executive Committee to submit to the National Board of the Coal Industry proposals for amending the agreement in three important respects:—

- (1) Revision of the ratios of profits and wages.
- (2) Revision of the present minimum in the agreement.
- (3) Fuller information as to "other costs" (to be obtained for report to a later conference).

The Advisory Committee for Coal and the Coal Industry, in their report published early in 1923, state: "We are convinced that the solution of the problem with which the coal-mining industry is faced, within itself, rests almost entirely upon an increased demand, with a consequential increase in output and reduction in overhead charges, and that this increased demand can only follow gradually upon the general recovery of the trade and industry of this and other countries."

### The Cotton Trade.

The cotton trade, too, has been passing through and still remains in a state of acute depression. Unemployment is high and short time is systematically worked. The condition is largely the direct outcome of loss of markets due to the war and the world shortage of cotton supplies. [See article on "The Cotton Position"—ED.]

### Strikes and Lockouts.

1923, though not so regrettably conspicuous as its predecessor for serious trade disputes, has yet been marred by many industrial quarrels. In the first nine months of the year there have been 489 disputes, involving some 358,000 workpeople, with the loss

of over 8,300,000 working days. A prolonged dispute in the jute trade in Dundee and a lockout of the members of the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders were responsible for a large proportion of these lost days.\* Disputes of outstanding interest were the strike of farmworkers and the "dockers' revolt."

### **The Farm Workers' Strike.**

The strike of farm workers, which began in March, was concentrated in Norfolk and involved some 8,000 men. The dispute arose out of the proposed reduction in standard rate of wages from 6d. to 5½d. per hour, and an increase in standard working hours from 50 to 54 per week.

But the issue was something much wider than a local problem affecting a single industry in one county. The very existence of farming, as it has been practised in East Anglia, was threatened, and with it the existence on the land of the present struggling and much-to-be-pitied rural population. Each side is faced with insuperable difficulties. The farmers declare that owing to the depression of agriculture they cannot pay, on an arable farm, an economic wage of 25/- for a 50 hour week. The labourer cannot in decency rear a family on such a deplorably low wage (his "real wages" are, it must be admitted, higher than his "money wages," otherwise, in many cases, he could not live at all), and naturally he objects to the curtailment of his Saturday half-holiday—a right hardly won in the war. He wants each day some time that he can call his own, for the purposes of relaxation or the tending of his garden and allotment. Therefore, unless the owners, farmers and labourers can co-operate to an extent hitherto unattempted in growing and marketing their products, or without assistance or relief from the Government—the final recommendations of the Agricultural Tribunal will be awaited eagerly—one result only seems possible. Stock must take the place of crops, and grass of ploughland, with a subsequent serious drop in the numbers of men that the land will support—in fact, the average farmer must grow less food, "a disheartening conclusion, especially, in consequences to labour" (Lord Ernle), and the urbanisation of England must become still more marked.

### **The Dock Strike.**

The dock strike began in the four ports of Hull, Grimsby, Bristol and Cardiff on July 2nd, and arose out of dissatisfaction with a reduction of wages by a shilling a day following the decline in the cost of living. This reduction was in accordance with the agreement made last year, but the workers and their hastily found "unofficial" leaders disputed the accuracy of the Ministry of Labour's figures. On July 3rd the strike spread to London, and notwithstanding the efforts of Mr. Bevin to check a movement

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[\*See "Events While Printing.—EDITORS B.D.Y.B.]

which threatened to break the men's union, other ports also became involved.

At the first annual Delegate Conference of the Transport and General Workers' Union (at the Central Hall, Westminster, July 9th, 1923, vide *Times*, July 10th), Mr. Bevin declared that the whole future existence and power of the union was at stake. "The strike up to the moment has been against the Union and not the employers," he said. By a decisive vote, the Conference called upon the strikers to resume work. The resolution, "while appreciating the resentment against the reduction of wages," declared that, "the present agreement having been entered into with the consent of the elected delegates at the ports, with full knowledge, the policy of the union in honouring its agreements must be adhered to."

"There are between two hundred and three hundred agreements held by this union," declared Mr. Bevin. "If the policy is now to be that an agreement may be made one day and broken the next, adopt that policy, but do so with your eyes open. If you do, trade unionism will be finished as an organised means of dealing with wages and conditions."

Except at Hull and in the Port of London, the stoppage of work did not last many days. The Hull men gave up the fight at the end of a month, but the men in London hung out for a further three weeks. The strike then collapsed as abruptly as it began. Thousands of men in the week previous had broken away from the movement and had returned to work. The strike had failed, but it left as an aftermath a strong feeling against the Transport and General Workers' Union, and a new organisation, the Amalgamated Union of Stevedores, Lightermen and Dockers, was formed to challenge the authority of Mr. Gosling, Mr. Bevin and Mr. Ben Tillet to speak for the dockers in the London area.

### The Labour Party Conference.

The 23rd Annual Conference of the Labour Party was held at the Queen's Hall, London, from the 26th to the 29th June, 1923, under the presidency of Mr. Sidney Webb. About 900 delegates were present, representing an affiliated membership of over 3½ millions. "This Conference had a character unlike any of its predecessors. Behind it is a striking electoral success. All about it are the responsibilities of a party charged with the duties of the parliamentary opposition, and ahead it sees, 'somewhere about 1926,' the prospect of changing places with the Government. These circumstances are calculated to produce, not only in the members of the party who have seats in the House of Commons, but in the party as a whole, a sense of responsibility, both to the constituencies, which have chosen its candidates from their representatives, and to the country. With increase of strength there are inherent obligations, and the Labour Party Conference

has on this occasion displayed a restraint and sobriety which mark a stage of no mean importance in its development." (*Times* leading article, July 2nd, 1923). By an overwhelming vote, the Conference again rejected the application of the Communist Party for membership. "The Labour Party," said Mr. Frank Hodges, "believe in parliamentary institutions and parliamentary action. . . . Russia has nothing to teach the political democracy of the Western world."

On the third day of the Conference a long resolution, submitted by the Executive in regard to national finance, was adopted, affirming that the Labour Party's policy was to redeem a substantial portion of the National Debt by a graduated capital levy. Two resolutions relating to disarmament were proposed by representatives of the Independent Labour Party. The first, asking the Government to summon an international conference and to make proposals to other nations for immediate disarmament by mutual agreement, was adopted. The second, stating that "it should be the policy of the Labour Party in Parliament to vote against all military and naval estimates," led to a long debate, and was eventually defeated on a card vote by 2,924,000 to 808,000.

On the fourth and last day a resolution was passed demanding the immediate undertaking by every local authority of a three years' programme of house building, providing adequate accommodation for every family at a rent within the wage-earner's means.

### The Trades Union Congress.

The Trades Union Congress met at Plymouth on the 3rd September, under the presidency of Mr. J. B. Williams. The total membership represented at the Congress showed a reduction of 759,000 (or 14.8 per cent.) as compared with 1922. A considerable part of the earlier sessions of the Congress was taken up with the discussion of domestic affairs, notably the "Back to the Unions" campaign, the amalgamation of trade unions, and the relation between competing unions in the same industry. Much time was devoted to a discussion of the position of the "Daily Herald" newspaper. Finally a resolution was passed to the effect that if £12,500 was raised before the end of September, the General Council was to continue the publication of the paper until the end of 1923. Mr. F. Bramley was elected to the post of Secretary to the General Council for the ensuing year (for full account *vide* "Labour Gazette" for September and *Times*, September 10th, 1923).

The annual report of the General Federation of Trade Unions (published in July, 1923), records a decrease in membership of some 300,000, though the present membership is still higher than before the war. The trials and difficulties of the year are reflected in this figure. The deplorable amount of unemployment, the still appreciably high cost of living in conjunction with falling

wages, due partly to the depression of trade, must all combine to have their effect.

### Conclusion.

Unhappily, as 1923 draws to its close, we cannot look to the immediate future with any definite hope of improvement in the labour world. The brighter prospect for British trade, which the sacrifices both by employers and workers had made possible in the early months of the year, was too soon obscured by the political and economic events on the Continent. Renewed confidence gave way to doubt and uncertainty, and in consequence, trade and employment, though no worse, have not improved as much as might reasonably have been hoped.

One hopeful augury is to be found in the Imperial Economic Conference. Much might be achieved by a closer union of the Empire in its trade activities, by a wiser and more sympathetic understanding of the aims and aspirations of each unit. Unfortunately, British industry cannot hope for a full recovery while Europe remains economically impoverished and politically unsettled. But the position does not warrant unrelieved pessimism. Lord Weir, in an admirable letter to the *Times* (January 11th, 1923), gave a reasoned statement of the factors upon which all our hopes must rest. "As I see it to-day," he wrote, "Great Britain is in a wonderful position. In spite of the chaos in industrial and economic Europe, in spite of currency difficulties, Great Britain is providing work for 85 per cent. of her trade union membership, and devoting enormous sums to the amelioration of the conditions of the unemployed. Her credit stands almost at par, and, above all, there is a unique, undeveloped British Empire available for development. What a list of solid assets; what a field for sane optimism!"

### Poor Law Relief.

Statistics of Poor Law relief in England and Wales on the night of January 1st, 1923, issued as a White Paper in October, show:—

|                                                                 | 1923.            | 1922.            |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Numbers in receipt of out relief through unemployment . . . . . | 721,738          | 744,797          |
| Other persons . . . . .                                         | 816,252          | 748,269          |
| Total . . . . .                                                 | <u>1,537,990</u> | <u>1,493,066</u> |

Though this shows a total increase of 44,924, or of 9 per 10,000 of the population, the number receiving relief on account of unemployment was reduced by 23,059, notwithstanding that in



London those receiving unemployed relief increased by 16,624. The growth of Poor Law relief in 10 years was:—

|                | London. | Other Urban Unions. | Total, England and Wales. |
|----------------|---------|---------------------|---------------------------|
| 1914 . . . . . | 126,232 | 347,498             | 751,578                   |
| 1915 . . . . . | 124,570 | 351,295             | 762,040                   |
| 1916 . . . . . | 107,727 | 311,571             | 684,549                   |
| 1917 . . . . . | 100,136 | 287,441             | 637,327                   |
| 1918 . . . . . | 90,940  | 263,002             | 586,785                   |
| 1919 . . . . . | 82,603  | 246,583             | 534,617                   |
| 1920 . . . . . | 85,658  | 283,552             | 576,418                   |
| 1921 . . . . . | 117,642 | 308,212             | 663,667                   |
| 1922 . . . . . | 240,855 | 864,246             | 1,493,066                 |
| 1923 . . . . . | 265,584 | 894,860             | 1,537,990                 |

Poplar Borough heads the list in London with 31,248 persons in receipt of relief.

## Rent and Mortgage Interest.

The Restrictions Acts, 1920 and 1923.

By HERBERT STROUD.

**B**EFORE the war rentals of houses and rates of interest on mortgages were controlled by the universal law of supply and demand. Tenants had a more or less unrestricted field of selection, and there was competition among landlords to let their houses, and bargains were haggled over and finally struck, usually to the advantage of the tenant.

It cannot be too often repeated, in order to get a correct understanding of the reason for, and operation of, those Acts and those which they repeal, that a landlord has no powers he did not possess before. On the contrary, landlords and mortgagees have lost some of their powers, whilst others are restricted. They cannot alter by one jot any existing agreement, whether it is a lease or tenancy agreement, or a quarterly, monthly, or weekly tenancy, or a mortgage. The existing agreement must come to an end first of all. Before anything can be done by a landlord to increase the rent, and the mortgagee to increase his rate of interest; he has got to end the legal position existing between himself and his tenant or mortgager (borrower), as the case may be, either by giving a proper notice to quit in the case of letting a house, or a notice calling in the money borrowed in case of a mortgage.

What then is the object aimed at by these Acts? They operate as "restraining," not as "enabling," Acts, hence the title. They limit the powers of the landlord and the mortgagee.

A clear appreciation and understanding of this guiding principle will greatly help one to understand the scope and aims of the Acts. Their objects are:—(1) To fix a "standard rent." (2) To fix a "standard rate of interest" on mortgages. (3) To limit the amount of increase in the rent, or rate of mortgage interest. (4) To limit the powers of the landlord to regain possession of his house and the mortgagee to obtain repayment of his loan. (5) To prohibit the taking or paying of "key money" or "premiums." (6) To prohibit misleading entries in the rent-book. (7) To give special privileges to ex-service landlords. (8) To restrict the powers of levying distress. (9) To enable a landlord to continue to receive rent for three months after he has given notice to quit without prejudicing that notice. (10) To enable the tenant or borrower to recover moneys paid contrary to the provisions of the Acts. (11) To give the County Court jurisdiction in all cases under the Acts.

The Acts affect (both as regards tenancies and mortgages) all houses, or parts of houses let separately, including houses let partly as private dwelling houses and partly as business premises to the same tenant, the annual standard rent or rateable value of which does not exceed:—(A) Metropolitan Police District, including the City of London, £105. (B) Scotland, £90. (c) Anywhere else, £78.

In order to make the reading of the following pages of easier understanding, the following definitions are given:—

**Landlord** means any person except the tenant who is entitled to claim possession of the premises (this includes a purchaser of property which is let at the time of the purchase; he steps into the former owner's place).

**Tenant** includes a sub-tenant, also the widow of a tenant who has died without making a will, and was residing with him at his death, and also if he leaves no widow, or the tenant was a woman who has died, then unless the landlord agrees with some member of the family living at the house who shall be the tenant, the person appointed by the County Court judge.

**House or Dwelling-House** includes a part of a house (even one room), which is let as a separate dwelling, also premises used partly for dwelling purposes and partly for business, trade or profession, or as a shop or office, but does not include "furnished lodgings" nor a "furnished house."

**Standard Rent** means the rent at which the dwelling-house was let on the 3rd August, 1914, or if not let on that date, then the rent at which it was last let before or first let after that date. If, however, the rent was less than the rateable value at that date, then that rateable value is the standard rent, and where a house is let at an increasing rent under a lease, the maximum rent is the standard.

**Net Rent** means the standard rent less the amount of the rates, if those rates are paid by the landlord.

**Rateable Value** means the amount at which the house was rated on the 3rd August, 1914, or if not rated at that date, the amount at which it was first rated afterwards.

**Rates** include water rates or charges.

**Statutory Tenant** is a tenant who retains possession of the house after his tenancy has come to an end, and remains on under the protection of the Act, and this continued tenancy by him is called a "Statutory Tenancy."

### Increase of Rent.

First of all a landlord cannot (he never could) increase the rent for any reason whatever, not even to cover the increase in rates, during the continuance of a lease or a tenancy agreement. That rent is already fixed and must continue until the lease or agreement or other tenancy comes to an end in accordance with the terms of the lease or tenancy agreement or other tenancy, or is put an end to by a proper notice to quit. A notice to quit must be absolute and unconditional. Therefore, the first thing a landlord has to do is to give a proper notice to quit before or at the same time as he gives the notice to increase the rent in the form given in the Act.

A landlord to increase his rent, after having given, or at the same time giving, notice to quit, must serve on the tenant a written notice in the form given in the First Schedule to the Act. This Form sets out in detail:—

(A) Six per cent. (eight per cent. if expenditure incurred after 2nd July, 1920) on expenditure by landlord on improvement or structural alteration.

(B) The whole amount by which the rates have been increased.

(C) 15 per cent. (but only 5 per cent. for the first year on houses included in the old Acts—1915 houses and 1919 houses), and 35 per cent. on business premises on the net rent.

(D) 25 per cent. on the net rent where the landlord is responsible for the whole of the repairs, and a lesser amount in proportion in accordance with the shares of the landlord and of the tenant, respectively to pay for the repairs.

(E) Railway companies' houses let to those in their employ—to such additional amount as is required in order to give effect to the Agreement of the 1st March, 1920, relating to the rates of pay and conditions of employment of employees of the Railway Companies. These increases only date from four weeks after the notice, excepting in the case of (B)—increase for rates—which comes into force one week after the notice.

(F) And now by virtue of the 1923 Act an additional 5 per cent. in the case where his tenant has sub-let a part of the premises, such increase is calculated on the net rent paid by the sub-tenant to the tenant. And the tenant himself can increase the rent paid to him by his sub-tenant by ten per cent., so that his landlord gets the 5 per cent. as above, and he himself another 5 per cent.

Put briefly, the landlord can only increase his rent at the stated amounts all added together for:—(1) Improvements or structural alterations. (2) Rates. (3) Rent. (4) Repairs, and (5) Sub-letting.

Increase in consequence of increase of rates. This increase can only be in respect and to the amount of the increase for the current half-year. It has been decided that accumulations of increases for previous periods cannot be added. This, of course, applies only in the case where the landlord pays the rates.

At the risk of repetition, increase for rates cannot be made until the tenancy, whatever the nature or length, has ended either by effluxion of time or on a notice to quit, so as to enable the landlord and tenant to come to fresh terms. Further, this increase for rates can be added after one week's notice to increase. All the other increases can only be added after four weeks' notice to increase.

In speaking of increase of rent, it is to be specially remembered that any additional burden or liability previously borne by the landlord and put upon the tenant is to be treated as if it were an increase of rent; such, for instance, as a landlord transferring the liability to do the repairs to the tenant, that will be treated as an increase of rent. If the house is not in all respects reasonably fit for human habitation, or not in a reasonable state of repair, the tenant should apply to the County Court for an order to suspend the increases under both this Section and Section (D), which application must be supported by a report of the Sanitary Authority or other sufficient evidence. He can get a report from a Sanitary Authority on payment of a fee of one shilling, which he can deduct from the rent. And if the Court is satisfied that the condition of the house is not due to the tenant's neglect or default, it will order the increase to be suspended until the necessary repairs have been executed. It is specially provided by the Act that the tenant must afford to the landlord access to the premises in order to do repairs and all reasonable facilities for doing so.

Increase for repairs. Repairs means any repairs required for the purpose of keeping premises in good and tenantable repair, and the landlord is responsible for these where the tenant is under no express liability. In the case, however, where the landlord is responsible for some of the repairs and the tenant for other of the repairs, then the amount of the increase may be agreed between them, or on the application of either to the County Court, to such an amount as the Court may determine as fair, having regard to the respective liabilities.

Where part of a dwelling-house is sub-let, the tenant must, on written request by the landlord, supply him within fourteen days with a statement in writing of such sub-letting, with full particulars of occupancy, rent, etc. Failure by the tenant to do so, or giving false information, would render him liable to a fine not exceeding £2. Further, an additional increase of 10 per cent. of the rent can now be demanded, of which increase half is to be paid to the superior landlord (owner) and the other half to the immediate landlord.

To all questions by landlords as to how to increase the rent the answer is:—First end the present tenancy by giving a proper notice to quit. Then state your new terms of rent, as set out in the notice of increase. Be sure that the figures in the notice

of increase are correct, as one is liable to a £10 fine on conviction for material mistakes, unless it can be proved that they were made innocently and without intent to deceive.

**Houses, etc., to which the Act does not apply.**

The Act does not apply to the following:—

1. To a house or part of it where the rent includes the payment of board, attendance or use of furniture (as, for instance, a furnished house, furnished apartments, etc., though even as regards these the rent must not be exorbitant. See restrictions on furnished houses or apartments). In this respect, however, a substantial portion of the rent charged must be attributable to the attendance or the use of the furniture—a bit of linoleum laid down, or some isolated and trifling piece of furniture, will not do.

2. To a house having large additional land or buildings, such, for example, as a farm or a large agricultural holding where the rateable value of the land is more than a quarter of the rateable value of the house. (Any question as to the apportionment of these rateable values may be settled by the County Court.)

3. To a house built or converted into two or more self-contained flats since 2nd April, 1919.

4. To a house (but not part of a house sub-let) actually in the occupation of the landlord or of which the landlord obtained actual possession on or after 31st July, 1923 (excepting for non-payment of rent). In other words the house becomes “decontrolled.”

5. To a house for which the landlord has granted or agreed to grant a lease or tenancy after 31st July, 1923, for two years at least and ending not earlier than 24th June, 1926.

6. Premises used entirely for business purposes.

(N.B.—Premises which are let as one letting and are used partly for business purposes and partly as a dwelling-house come within the Act, being “controlled”).

**Rent Receivable after Notice.**—Hitherto, in cases where a landlord has given to a tenant notice to quit, and afterwards has taken rent from the tenant, such taking of rent has made a fresh tenancy and so made the notice no good—now, however, by special provision, the landlord can go on receiving his rent for three months after the expiration of the notice without prejudicing his right to possession.

**Restrictions on Levying Distress.**—The Acts now forbid a landlord of premises that come within the Acts from levying distress on a tenant for non-payment of his rent until he has got leave of the County Court to do so, and the Court, when the landlord applies for such leave, has power to take into its consideration the same questions as on an application by the landlord for possession.



**Key Money and Premiums.**—The Act has taken strong measures to put a stop to the taking of money in any form (key money, premium, bonus, fine or other pecuniary exaction, or whatever else it may be called) by the landlord—and any money so paid can be recovered by the tenant, either by his deducting it from the rent or suing the landlord—the former would seem to be the better plan.

Attempts have been made to evade this statutory prohibition against premiums and the like by compelling the purchasing of furniture at exorbitant prices—this device has now been met by special provision in the new Act of 1923, by Section 9 of which it is provided that where the purchase of any furniture or other articles is required as a condition of granting or continuing the tenancy, the price demanded shall be stated in writing, and if the price exceeds the reasonable price of such furniture or articles, such excess shall be treated as if a premium, bonus or fine had been demanded, and the person demanding such excessive price will become liable to the same penalties.

### Recovery of Possession.

The aim and objects of the Acts and the previous Acts from 1915 onwards has been to protect the tenant from arbitrary eviction from his house or, in other words, to obtain for him "security of tenure," as it is now popularly called.

As regards this question of recovering possession, the Acts apply to exactly the same class of house as to those dealt with earlier in this article on the question of rent. A landlord who wants to get possession of his house must apply to the County Court on one or other of the nine following grounds:—

(1). That the tenant has not paid the rent or has either broken or not carried out the terms and conditions of his tenancy.

(2) That the tenant or anyone living with him or his sub-tenant, has been guilty of conduct which is a nuisance or annoyance to adjoining occupiers, or has been convicted of using or allowed the premises to be used for immoral or illegal purposes, or has allowed the premises to deteriorate.

(3) That the tenant had himself given notice to quit and that acting on that notice he (the landlord) had sold or re-let the premises, and was prejudiced, therefore, by the tenant staying on.

(4) That he (the landlord) wants the house for his own use or for any son or daughter of his over eighteen years of age, or for any person *bona fide* residing with him, or for some person engaged in his whole-time employment or in the whole-time employment of some tenant from whom or with whom a contract has been entered into conditional on housing accommodation being provided; but he must satisfy the Court that alternative accommodation reasonably suitable to the means, needs,

character and proximity to place of work of his tenant and his family are available on terms which will afford the tenant security of tenure similar to that afforded by the Acts.

(A) Where the house was let to the tenant in consequence of his being employed by the landlord and that employment has come to an end.

(B) Where the cottage is required by the farmer for one of his men working on the farm on proof of a certificate of the County Agricultural Committee.

(C) Where the landlord gave up his house to serve in the war.

(D) Where the landlord or the husband or wife of the landlord became the owner of the house before the 30th June, 1922, and he requires it for either his own occupation or that of any son or daughter of his over eighteen years of age, and the Court is satisfied that it is reasonable to make the order for possession.

(E) Where the landlord or the husband or wife of the landlord became the owner of the house after the 30th June, 1922, and he requires it for himself or any son or daughter of his over eighteen years of age, and he satisfies the Court that greater hardship would be caused by refusing an order for possession than by granting it.

(5) That the house is wanted for carrying out some statutory duties or powers of a local authority or in the public interest, but alternative accommodation must be available.

(6) That the landlord after serving in the war wants his house for his own use, and offers the tenant part of it as alternative accommodation.

7. That the ex-service man was a former tenant of the house and gave it up to serve in the war, and now wants to get it back again.

8. That the tenant without the consent of the landlord has assigned or sub-let the whole of the house since 31st July, 1923.

9. That the house is a public house, and the tenant has not conducted the business to the satisfaction of the justices or the police.

But it must always be remembered that it is necessary to satisfy the County Court judge that it is reasonable to make an order or give judgment for possession—that it is entirely in his discretion. Also that although an order for possession is obtained by the landlord against the tenant, it does not affect the rights of the sub-tenant to remain in possession, provided his sub-tenancy is lawful (*i.e.*, the superior landlord's permission has been obtained).

**Powers of the Court.**—The County Court judge may, in his absolute discretion, either adjourn the application or postpone the date of possession if the order for possession has not then been carried out, or may vary or rescind an order for possession.

The County Court judge may also amend a faulty notice of intention to increase the rent, if such fault is due to a bona-fide mistake; correcting the errors and supplying any omissions, and at the same time make such order as regards arrears or alterations of rent in consequence of such amendment as he may think reasonable—with this limitation, however, that such order as to arrears or alterations of rent shall be retrospective for not more than six months. Again he has power on application by either the landlord or the tenant to decide summarily all questions affecting (a) amount of rent, (b) what is the "standard rent" or "net rent," (c) the amount of increase of rent allowed by the Acts.

### Mortgages.

These Acts, besides dealing with landlords and tenants, also deal with mortgagors and mortgagees.

Summarised, briefly, the Rent Acts to-day affect and control the old law of mortgages on all properties of the same description as those dealt with previously as regards rents, to the following extent:—The mortgagee cannot call in the mortgage—that is to say, demand payment of the money lent—so long as the mortgagor (A) regularly pays his interest within twenty-one days of its being due, (B) performs and observes the covenants in the mortgage deed, (C) keeps the property in a proper state of repair, and (D) pays all his interest on any prior mortgages to the same mortgagee.

There are, however, exceptions to this provision, which are as follows:—(A) It does not affect a mortgage that has been created since July, 1920. (B) It does not relate to the mortgage of a property which was occupied by the mortgagor himself and now, since the 1923 Act, comes into his possession, nor does it relate to an equitable mortgage, that is to say, where money is lent on a memorandum of deposit of the deeds, without having the formality of a legal mortgage deed. Nor does it apply to building society mortgages, where the repayment of principal is by instalments spread over a period of ten years or more. In the case of mortgages on leasehold property, if, in the opinion of the mortgagee, the property is seriously diminishing in value, he may apply to the Court for a special order authorising him to call in the mortgage, and to enforce repayment, or alternatively, to direct the mortgagor to repay to the mortgagee such a sum as corresponds to the loss of the security in consequence of the diminution in value.

With regard to the even more important question as to the increase of interest. The first essential, before any mortgagee can increase his interest, is that, as a preliminary step, he calls in the mortgage and brings to an end the existing relations between himself and his mortgagor, and the terms under which such relations have been created, that is to say, the mortgage deed or memorandum of deposit, as the case may be; this must be done, not-

withstanding the fact that such a notice, so far as the repayment of the principal is concerned, is ineffective to all properties coming within the scope of the Acts.

The mortgagee having, therefore, for the purpose of bringing to an end the contractual obligations between himself and his mortgagor, given the usual three months notice, is then in a position to increase the rate of interest on the capital money he has lent to his mortgagor, but within limits, that is to say, a total increase of £1 per cent. on the standard rate of interest, the standard rate of interest being the rate of interest which was payable on the 3rd August, 1914, but so that the aggregate total increase shall not exceed  $6\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. As an example, in a case where the standard rate of interest is £6 per cent., the mortgagor can only increase it by a further  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. and no more.

It is to be noted that by Part 2 of the 1923 Act, which continues in force for a further five years after the termination of the Rent Restrictions Acts themselves, that is to say, after the 24th June, 1925, to the 24th June, 1930, the restriction as to the calling in of mortgages is continued in cases where the landlord can satisfy the County Court that such calling in or taking steps to enforce his security by the mortgagee would cause the landlord exceptional hardship. Inasmuch as these provisions do not come into operation until after the 24th June, 1925, it is conceivably possible that there may be alterations in what is, after all, only emergency legislation.

#### Miscellaneous.

The Acts do not apply to ground rents either in respect of tenancies or mortgages, nor do they apply to tenants at will or tenants at sufferance, that is to say, persons occupying a house without paying rent, nor to caretakers, as they are considered to come within this category.

If the owner of the dwelling-house is himself in occupation of the dwelling-house on the 31st July, 1923, or comes into possession of it at any time afterwards, from that moment such dwelling-house has become decontrolled and free from the operation of the Acts. The landlord is replaced in his old position in which he was before the war, but with the old liabilities, so that if he sells his dwelling-house he will have to give possession on completion of the purchase, unless he specifically provides that it is sold subject to any existing tenancy.

Part II. of the Act 1923 has made provision for a limited protection for a further five years, until 1930, as follows:—

(A) If proceedings are taken against a tenant for recovery of possession or for ejectment, and the Court is satisfied that such proceedings are harsh or oppressive or would cause exceptional hardship on the tenant, the Court may either refuse or adjourn the landlord's application or suspend execution of any order made or postpone the date of possession—and may set

aside any notice to quit given by the landlord—and determine what increase of rent (if any) shall be paid by the tenant. Any order or judgment against a tenant shall not, however, affect a sitting tenant of part of the dwelling-house, unless the Court specifically directs. To assist the Court, the Ministry of Health may establish Reference Committees to whom all these questions may be referred.

(B) If the County Court is satisfied, on the application of the tenant by production of a certificate of the sanitary authority, that the dwelling-house is not in a reasonable state of repair, such not being due to the tenant's neglect, the Court may order the rent to be reduced until the necessary repairs have been carried out on the report of the sanitary authority.

(c) If the dwelling-house is mortgaged and is occupied by a tenant of the mortgagor, the Court may, on the application of the mortgagor, restrain the mortgagee from calling in the mortgage money or enforcing his security if satisfied that it would cause exceptional hardship on the mortgagor; at the same time the Court may increase the rate of interest; also the mortgagee may, at a later date, apply to the Court to rescind such restraining order if altered circumstances warrant such rescindment; also such order of restraint against the mortgagee will cease at any time if (i) interest is more than 21 days in arrear; (ii) any covenant by the mortgagor (other than the covenant for repayment of the principal sum) is either broken or not performed; (iii) the mortgagor fails to keep the property in a proper state of repair or to pay the interest and instalments of principal under any earlier mortgage. (iv) the tenant leaves.

These provisions as regards mortgages do not, however, apply to a mortgage where the principal sum is repayable by instalments extending over a period of ten years or more, such as building society mortgages.

Thus has the legislature provided a method whereby house property shall gradually revert to its old condition and estates on or before the 24th June, 1925. Whether by that time it will have attained its object or the supply of houses will suffice to meet the demand, time alone will tell; it may be that a still further extension of the Acts will be necessary.

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## The Cotton Position.

REFERENCE to the position of cotton is made in both "Labour" and Trade Returns articles. Lancashire has been faced with the triple problem of increasing competition in cotton manufacture, a threatened shortage in supplies of raw cotton, due in part to the ravages of the boll weevil, partly to economic



laws and the general dislocation of trade, which in any case would reflect itself on the industry. The American Department of Commerce, in its third world cotton summary, shows that at the end of the cotton season—31st July, 1922—the world stock of American cotton was 5,123,000 bales, and world stocks of all kinds (including American) were 9,536,000 bales. Adding the new season's production of 9,964,000 bales of American cotton, and 17,664,000 bales of all kinds, there was a total supply for 1922-23 of 15,087,000 bales of American and 27,200,000 bales of all kinds. This was less by about 2,225,000 bales of American cotton and the same amount of all kinds of cotton than the supply of 1921-22. If the estimated consumption for the year 1922-23 of 12,312,000 bales of American and 20,579,000 bales of all kinds of cotton were subtracted from that total, the indicated carry-over on 1st August, 1923, would be only 2,750,000 bales of American and 6,500,000 bales of all kinds. Stocks of cotton would have reached an abnormally low total. The report showed that while European consumption of cotton was only 70 per cent. of the pre-war average, world consumption was almost back to normal.

The International Cotton Bulletin in April estimated the total number of spindles in the world as practically  $1\frac{1}{2}$  million higher than on July 31, 1922. "As this increase is mainly accounted for by such countries as India, Japan, and China, where the consuming power per spindle is considerably larger than in Europe, these  $1\frac{1}{2}$  million new spindles represent a consuming capacity of, say, five to six million Lancashire spindles."

What measures Lancashire will take to meet the competition of the East, with its cheap and abundant labour, depends upon circumstances and developments when the world returns to sober business. Quality will probably be the determining factor. What Lancashire and the Empire are doing to prepare for the day when America will consume practically all the cotton she can grow may be learned from the record of the British Cotton Growing Association and the Empire Cotton Growing Corporation. In the Sudan, in Nigeria, Nyassaland, South Africa, Australia and elsewhere experiments have been made from which considerable results are expected in the near future, supplementing crops from India and Egypt. The past year has shown a real quickening of interest in Empire grown cotton.

"It has always to be remembered in the case of cotton," says Sir Charles Macara, "that it should be viewed from the international standpoint, and that any increase in the quantity of cotton grown must be beneficial to the trade generally. For instance, the growing of more cotton by India would leave more of the second-grade material for the use of the spinners on the European Continent, and, therefore, free more of the better quality grown in America and elsewhere for the needs of the fine spinners of Lancashire and elsewhere. Outside the British Empire, cotton

growing is being taken up by many countries, and notably by Brazil, which appears to be able to grow cotton equal to anything raised in the Southern States of America. Indeed, in one or two of the Brazilian States the quality of the cotton grown is not surpassed by Egypt itself. Without any special incentive, Brazil has more than doubled her crop of cotton in recent years—increasing it from 270,000 bales in 1904–1905 to 612,000 bales in 1921–1922—and now that she is showing a special interest in the matter her yield is expected to run into millions before many years have passed. Peru, again, is an ideal country for the growing of cotton. The yield per acre is greater than in any other country."

Sir Milton Sheridan Sharp, addressing the Bradford Dyers' Association, Ltd., referring to the perilous position in which Lancashire may find itself, hinted at the possibility of freeing the industry from dependence on the cotton fields. "This may seem a startling and even an absurd statement: nevertheless it has been deduced from close reasoning, its possibility being conclusively demonstrated by the case of artificial silk, which is now being produced in thousands of tons a year. I have long held the view that properly directed scientific research would, in time, find a method of producing an article which, although not exactly a substitute for cotton, would supplement it on a great commercial scale. Such a raw material would be immune from serious attacks of insect pests which so greatly affect the weight of cotton harvested in America and other cotton-growing countries. It would further have perfect immunity from adverse climatic conditions."

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## The Crisis in Agriculture

THE plight of agriculture, bad in 1922, has been worse in 1923. Farmers have been loud in their complaints of prices, of the costs of production and distribution, of competition, not only from foreign countries, but from the Dominions, and of the burden of the rates. The labourers have equally bitterly complained of their inability to live on the wages paid, and the decision of the Norfolk farmers, that if the weekly wage rate was to be maintained the men must work longer hours, led to a disastrous strike in March, which threw a somewhat lurid light on the conditions of the industry. Agriculture is described as in the most serious crisis in its history, and the hopes that better times were not far off, encouraged by a speech delivered by Sir A. Griffith-Boscawen, the Minister for Agriculture, in October, 1922, have proved wholly illusive. Lord Bledisloe, in January, said it was estimated that during the year the capital loss of the farmers

had amounted to £90,000,000; if the losses of landlords were included, the total capital depreciation would amount to £200,000,000. The farmers' case is strongly set forth in a brochure, "Where Are We Going?" by Mr. Christopher Turnor and Mr. Bernard Gilbert, with a preface by Lord Bledisloe. Despairing of existing parties, the book advocates the formation of a Rural Party specially concerned with farming interests.

The report issued by the Ministry of Agriculture in January, 1923, giving the acreage of land under crops and grass, and the number of live stock in England and Wales in the previous June, stated that "the reduction in the arable area has now been continuous since 1918, and at present the land under the plough is not much greater than it was immediately before the war." The total area under crops and grass showed less change in 1922 than had been the case for several years previously, 26,026,000 acres being returned, as against 26,144,000 acres in 1921. But the arable area was reduced by 308,000 acres, while permanent grass increased by 189,000 acres. A decline of another 300,000 acres, it was pointed out, would practically bring the country back to the position of 1914. Worse than this, unfortunately, would appear to be the case, judging from preliminary returns published at the beginning of November. These estimate the total production of wheat at 1,515,000 tons, as compared with 1,674,000 tons in 1922, the whole of the reduction being due to the decline in acreage. The average yield per acre is estimated at 17.4 cwt., or nearly  $\frac{1}{2}$  cwt. per acre more than last year and  $\frac{1}{3}$  cwt. above the ten years' average. The shrinkage in acreage of the three principal cereals in 1923 was given as follows:—

|                  |                       |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| Wheat . . . . .  | 226,388 acres.        |
| Barley . . . . . | 37,023 acres.         |
| Oats . . . . .   | 180,848 acres.        |
| Total . . . . .  | <u>444,259 acres.</u> |

Nevertheless, barley production was slightly in excess of 1922, and oats were better by 70,000 tons, in consequence of a much greater yield per acre.

According to the earlier return, though in 1922 we still grew some 400,000 acres more corn, and 100,000 acres more potatoes than in 1914, against these increases there was to be set the fall in roots and the larger area remaining in bare fallow. The large increase in sugar beet noted in 1922 was maintained, 8,400 acres being under this crop, as compared with 8,330 acres in 1921. As the result of the substantial increase in the number of calves reared in 1921, the total number of cattle returned on June 3rd, 1922, was 5,723,000, or an increase of 206,000. The number of cows and heifers in milk or in calf was also increased, the total, 2,520,000, being 20,000 greater than in 1921. Pigs declined by over 200,000, and the decline in horse-breeding continued. The

number of pedigree cattle was estimated at 150,000, with 43,000 shorthorns at the head, and the number of pedigree sheep at 800,000, the largest breed being the Hampshire Down with 130,000.

Dr. A. G. Ruston, in a paper on the Economic Conditions of Agriculture, read at a meeting of the Farmers' Club in March, gave some striking figures derived from an investigation of a wide variety of types of farms in Yorkshire, fifty-two in number. Taking the accounts completed for 1922, he said there had been an average net loss of £2 10s. 6d. per acre, equivalent to 16 per cent. of the capital invested, or 1.82 times the rental. Dr. Ruston was, however, not pessimistic as to the future of agriculture, despite these figures. The total gross income derived from the farms in question in 1922 exceeded the total gross expenditure by £1 4s. 6d. an acre; the losses were mainly due to the fact that the average capital per acre fell from £18 9s. 6d. on April 1st, 1921, to £14 14s. 6d. on March 31st, 1922. Moreover, widely varying economic results were obtained from different individual farms; 38 per cent. of them, for example, even in 1922, were able to pay their way, and many made profits. He foresaw the mainstay of successful farming in the next few years in live stock. Meantime, he said, farmers were justified in claiming that the Safeguarding of Industries Act should either be scrapped or amended to include agriculture. He believed the salvation of the industry would be found in co-operation among farmers rather than in subsidies.

At the Annual Meeting of the National Farmers' Union, Mr. H. German, the President for 1923, described the position as deplorable, relieved only by the success which had attended the efforts of his predecessor to bring the three sections of agriculture—owners, farmers and labourers—into joint conference and action for their mutual benefit. They intended to bring pressure to bear upon Government, Parliament and the country, and demanded that public opinion should decide definitely whether the industry was to be conducted on a strictly economic basis or on a political and social basis. "If," said the President, "the nation, after consideration, intimated its desire to see the industry organised on a strictly economic basis, then it must be prepared cheerfully to face diminished production; diminished rural employment, and the consequent flocking of the rural workers to the towns; the laying down to grass of all but the most fertile lands, and the reversion to what was known as 'ranch farming'; increased dependence on overseas supplies of food; the abandonment of all 'back-to-the-land' schemes, and all idea of a repopulated countryside. On the other hand, if the nation decided that in the interests of the State it was necessary to reduce our dependence on imported food supplies to a minimum and to secure an output from the soil in excess of the economic maximum; and to retain or increase at an adequate living wage the existing numbers of

workers employed on the land, so that a healthy and virile race should spring from the countryside, this would involve the organisation of the industry on a political and social basis, and impose upon it services of an uneconomic character, for which the nation must be prepared to pay. The only method of payment was either by subsidies or some measure of protection."

The gravity of the situation was emphasised by statements made at some of the bank meetings early in the year. Thus Mr. J. Beaumont Pease, in his speech as chairman of Lloyd's Bank, whilst pointing to the exceptionally critical state of agriculture, took the opportunity of answering (1), a complaint made by "an ex-Prime Minister and ex-Chancellor of the Exchequer" to the effect that "in the old days when they had little proprietary banks, the banker knew every farmer, and he lent him money till the bad times were over because he knew that the farmer was an honest man. They had got now a system of a different character," and (2) a statement in the press that "agriculture is suffering from the amalgamation of the big banks, and the position they are taking up in connection with the farming industry is that of practically affording no financial assistance to farmers." Mr. Pease gave some "definite facts" as to what banks are actually doing. "I have had the figures taken out, and they show that, as far as this bank is concerned, we are lending to 12,800 farmers sums aggregating £14,000,000, and I have no doubt that our banking neighbours have been similarly liberal." He wrote to the managers of two of the bank's branches in the centre of agricultural districts, one in the North and the other in the Eastern Counties, who had been there under both a "small proprietary banking" régime and under the amalgamated joint stock system "This is the answer I received from one of them:—'The debit balance due from farmers in December, 1902, to the private Bank was £15,462. This figure compares with £25,034 due to Lloyd's Bank in December, 1922, and if advances to farmers for the purchase of their farms (£14,220) were added, and they might very well be, the total overdrafts of farmers at this Branch would be £39,254 in December, 1922, against the £15,462 quoted above as due twenty years ago.' But these figures do not represent the full amount available for farmers at this Branch, because, later on in his letter, the manager points out that overdraft limits to the extent of £63,550 were sanctioned in December, 1922, though not fully availed of, and he adds: 'These figures, I think, effectually dispose of the contention that Banks are not as liberal in this respect as they used to be'."

In February the Departmental Committee appointed to consider the question of credits to farmers reported. It was pointed out that credit facilities could only be palliatives, and if the farming industry was to be conducted along sound lines, a solution must be found in other directions. With that proviso they recommended,



among other things, (1) a scheme for long-term assistance by the State to farmers who bought between the passing of the Corn Production Act in 1917 and its repeal in 1921 (loans not to exceed 75 per cent. of present value of the holding); (2) the formation of short-term Co-operative Credit Societies for short-term credits, the State advancing capital to them on the basis of £1 for every £1 of share capital raised by a Society, of which not less than 5/- was paid up.

This report was followed a month later by an interim report of the Government Agricultural Tribunal of Investigation, appointed by Mr. Bonar Law, in which the policy of "better farming, better business, and better living," was urged, and to that end the following recommendations were made:—

Malting Barley.—Duty 10s. a quarter on imports with one-third Imperial Preference.

Hops.—Duty 20s. a cwt. on imports, with similar Preference.

Potatoes.—Restricted imports, under license.

Wheat Offals.—Compulsory import (one-third of import of wheat-flour); 10 per cent. duty on export.

Sugar Beet.—Continued protection.

District wages boards.

Cut of a quarter in agricultural railway rates.

Half rates on agricultural property, and bigger State contribution to rural rates.

Credit facilities for associations of farmers.

The Government promptly announced their view that railway rates might be reduced drastically. They did not, at the moment, agree to the proposal with regard to hops, but they were prepared to allocate the Road Fund surplus, amounting probably to £1,250,000, to the relief of rates for the upkeep of rural roads, and to pass an Agricultural Credits Act. On the other points the decisions announced on April 20th were:—

"Wheat Offals.—The Government do not accept the proposals of the Tribunal.

Malting Barley.—The Government accept the proposal that an excise duty of 10s. a quarter be imposed on imported malting barley to be collected at the brewery, distillery, or malt-house, with a preference of one-third on barley imported from the Dominions. It was part of the arrangement concluded with the brewing industry before the introduction of the Budget that this should not involve any rise in the price of beer. The Government propose to introduce a Bill dealing with the matter in the course of the Session.

Potatoes.—The Government are not at present prepared to adopt the proposal of the Tribunal that imports of foreign potatoes be permitted only under general license of the President of the Board of Trade.

Milk Production.—The Government are in favour of the

proposals made in paragraph 33 of the Report, and are considering how the proposed assistance can best be given.

**Agricultural Wages.**—The Government are not prepared to adopt the proposal for setting up six District Wages Boards. We intend, however, to introduce legislation to make compulsory the registration of agreements arrived at by Conciliation Committees."

In a statement in Parliament on April 19th, the Minister for Agriculture said that the price of wheat was only 30 per cent. greater than it was before the war, as against a general increase of over 70 per cent. in the prices of commodities. The world's surplus in 1922 over effective demand was 37 million cwt. Depression was not confined to Great Britain. It was felt equally in America. In ninety communities in Minnesota there had been 328 farm bankruptcies, and in seventy-three communities in four States no fewer than 168 farmers committed suicide. Barley was in even worse case than wheat, the price being only 10 per cent. above the pre-war rate. Although America had gone dry, the growing of the raw material of beer and whisky had not been prohibited. Much of it came here, and brewers were ready in some cases to pay higher prices for it than for English barley, with the result that the position of the stock farmer was better than that of the arable farmer. The case of potatoes was still worse. As to the hop industry, the Controller would be in a position to pay another £7 per pocket in addition to the £5 already paid, and this would represent 80 per cent. of the full value, but when control came to an end the industry would be in a serious condition.

During the Session the Agricultural Credits Bill was passed. On the second reading, the Minister for Agriculture said that in view of the repeal of the Act amending the Corn Production Act within six months, he thought there was justice in the claim that a moral obligation rested on the State to do what it could to help the industry in the emergency. The measure would enable men who had bought their farms between the date of the introduction of the Corn Production Act in 1917 and the date of the repeal Act in 1921 to obtain mortgages, repayable by annual or half-yearly payments of interest and sinking fund, up to 75 per cent. of the present value of their farms. These mortgages would be granted through approved associations, which would be restricted in their profits. Criticism was mainly directed to the fact that farmers who had bought land at £75 an acre, now worth only £50 an acre, were to be given facilities for borrowing 75 per cent. of present value, or half the purchase price.

The general situation from the farmer's point of view was admirably set out in a statement issued by Mr. German in September in support of a demand that the Prime Minister should receive a deputation, which should lay all the facts before him. The

President of the National Farmers' Union said :—

The industry of agriculture in general and of arable farming in particular has to-day reached the most critical stage experienced in this country in all its long and varied history. The facts of the situation are, unfortunately, too well burnt into the minds of one and all of us to require recapitulation here. At the meeting of this Council in July of last year many of us, from an intimate knowledge of the industry, were able to foresee the trouble that was coming, and you authorised those acting here on your behalf to take any necessary steps during the next two months. Within a few weeks we were able to put such a case before the Minister, Sir Arthur Griffith-Boscawen, as justified him in breaking off his holiday and returning to London for special consultation with your leaders. As the situation developed so that it was no longer a question of apprehensions, however well informed, but one of accomplished facts which could be demonstrated to the public, we went further and sought an interview with the Prime Minister (Mr. Lloyd George) to ask for a clear definition of Government policy. Mr. Lloyd George promised to receive a deputation, but was finally prevented from doing so by the pressure of political events culminating in the downfall of his Government.

During the General Election the issue was prominently put before all parties and one of the first steps of the new Government, as the result of a request from all parties in the House, was to appoint a tribunal of economists "to inquire into the methods which have been adopted in other countries during the last fifty years to increase the prosperity of agriculture and to secure the fullest possible use of the land for the production of food and the employment of labour at a living wage, and to advise as to the methods by which those results could be achieved in this country."

A carefully prepared statement of evidence was submitted to this tribunal on behalf of the union, but events continued to move rapidly, and even before their interim report was issued we felt constrained to ask the Prime Minister to receive a deputation so that we could lay the full facts directly before him. Joint action was taken in this matter by representatives of the Agricultural Workers' Union and the Agricultural Section of the Workers' Union, who laid before Mr. Bonar Law the facts of the situation from the workers' point of view.

In our case, which was put forward by Mr. Robbins, we asked for a definite statement of the Government's intentions on two issues. The first was on the question of permanent policy as to whether the industry was to be conducted on a political and social basis or upon a purely economic basis, and we emphasised the national consequences of the latter. The second point was the urgency of immediate action to arrest the growing chaos in the industry which threatened to do irremediable damage, whatever the decision on the issue of permanent policy might be. On the first issue the Prime Minister was unable to give any substantial promise, while on the second he said that in his opinion the state of public feeling barred the only effective means of giving to agriculture political status, viz., protection or subsidies, so that, as he was then advised, the only course open was to adjust the industry, if possible, to a profit-paying basis on existing economic conditions.

It may be said that we had received from the head of the Government a definite reply to the questions raised by us, and it may be asked why we did not at once advise our members to act accordingly. There are various reasons which have led us hitherto from taking this drastic step. The first is the grave national responsibility resting upon such an organisation as this. We could not even then believe that the nation realised fully the consequences of the step which they were driving us to take. The second reason was the increased importance attached to the position of agriculture by the Press and by representatives of all parties in the House of Commons, which seemed to promise a more reasoned consideration of the national aspect of the question.

Lastly, the interim report of the Tribunal of Economists was not then published, and even when it did appear it was obvious that the tribunal had not yet tackled the fundamental issues outlined in its terms of reference.

Against these considerations, which still to-day carry considerable weight, we have to set the fact that for a year now we have endeavoured at considerable risk to our own interests to impress upon the Government and the public the vital national issues involved. We are now approaching the turning point of the cereal year, faced with results that show heavy losses on arable cultivation, and faced, further, with the prospect of losses in the year that is opening—losses beyond the ability of our members to continue to sustain. Finally, we have the fact that the imminence of the Imperial Economic Conference renders an immediate national decision absolutely imperative.

After the most careful consideration of all the factors, I have come to the conclusion that the time has come for this council to take decisive action. I, therefore, propose that the Prime Minister be asked to receive at the earliest possible moment a deputation from the union, and that this deputation be instructed to lay before him the full facts of the situation. Having done that, I feel that we shall have discharged fully our obligation to the national interest, and that, failing an immediate and definite statement of Government policy, the union will be at liberty to advise its members as to the conduct of the industry upon a purely economic basis. It is hardly necessary for me to indicate here the nature of that advice—it is confirmed by the experience of men who farmed through the 'eighties and 'nineties, and by the knowledge of our leading agricultural economists to-day—viz., to reduce our commitments, to reduce marginal costs by diminishing production, to divert remaining commitments to the most profitable channels, or, in a word, wherever possible, to resort to pasture or ranch farming. In fact, large areas of light land at present under the plough cannot be put to any other productive purpose and must revert to wild waste land.

This is a serious matter. It means many of our members facing the fact that the Government and the country are indifferent to their ruin, and it will mean misery, want, and unemployment haunting the homes of our workers, men whose lot we fully realise is already, under the starved condition of the industry, in many cases almost intolerable. I feel the responsibility for putting it forward ought to rest upon the one who occupies this chair for the time being, and I, therefore, move that a deputation be appointed to wait upon the Prime Minister, and that they be authorised by the council to issue a statement to our members in accordance with the terms of the reply received.

The council endorsed the following statement submitted by the General Purposes Committee:—Strong representations have been made to headquarters by county branches of the National Farmers' Union in regard to the representation of home agricultural interests at the forthcoming Imperial Economic Conference. The matter has engaged the attention of the union for some considerable time, and it was in response to the union's claims that the Minister of Agriculture decided to appoint an Advisory Committee to assist him during the sessions of the Economic Conference. The union views with serious misgivings, however, the circumstance that the Minister will enter the Conference without a clearly-defined policy for home agriculture to guide him when questions of Imperial food supplies are under discussion, a fact which is regarded as likely to impose upon the Advisory Committee responsibilities which they will not be in a position to assume. Such being the case, the National Farmers' Union has in its official organ made the demand that no decisions affecting home food production, directly or indirectly, shall be taken at the Conference without the knowledge of home agricultural interests and without the sanction of a free vote of Parliament.

Mr. Baldwin received the deputation on October 12th, and Mr. German amplified the case set out in the foregoing Memo-

random. The Prime Minister asked, however, for further information. In November the Government announced that it would pay a subsidy of £1 per acre of arable land, provided farmers paid a wage of 30/- per week. Farmers urge that £2 per acre is necessary, and at the best the subsidy will do no more than arrest the decline; it will not encourage farmers to increase their arable acreage.

The failure of the Government to put the promised import duty on barley has been the occasion of strong protest, and compensation is asked for in respect of this year's barley crop. Protection has been demanded both by the farmers and the farm workers, and it will be noted that the agricultural interests evince concern that the Empire migration schemes may rob them of their workers and that agricultural developments in the Dominions may make competition still more serious.

Protection has been definitely ruled out. Whether a policy of Imperial Preference might not be so devised that it would assist both home and Dominion agriculture without serious prejudice to the consumer—that it might even, perhaps, be to his ultimate advantage—is a problem as to which there are as many views as there are interests. Mr. Bruce, the Australian Prime Minister, would at least seem to have come to the conclusion that it is possible to devise a sliding scale of Protection and Preference, ensuring the stabilisation of prices, without increasing the cost of food. If agriculture is not placed on an economic basis it must decline, and its decline would involve the very increase in prices which is feared from protective measures. Producers will assuredly not continue to produce if the costs of production are above the price to be obtained in the markets. The question to be answered by the British people is: Are you prepared to take the risks, national and economic, involved in the decline of wheat-growing in the homeland?

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## Industrial Insurance

With Notes of Interviews with

LORD ASKWITH and MR. W. A. APPLETON

By EDWIN OLIVER.

**I**NDUSTRIAL Insurance may be divided into two distinct sections—life assurance and sickness and unemployment benefits. Circumstances have so decreed the complete divorce between the two systems that they have to be considered as two separate subjects. This result has always seemed to me to



be artificial. Why provision for the temporary loss of the breadwinner should be regarded as distinct a proposition from the permanent loss, is obscure, to say the least of it. But there it is. A working man is under statutory compulsion to provide against the risks of ill-health and trade depression, but he is free to leave his dependents destitute in the event of his premature death.

This separation, however, offers one advantage. It affords an excellent opportunity to compare the respective merits of insurance by private enterprise and by State control. The two principles are just now on their trial, and both have been attacked with an uncompromising bitterness which calls for a little clear thinking. The two subjects are so vast and involved that only the barest consideration can be given to them in the space of a single article, but I shall endeavour, in what follows, to cover the essential points.

### **Industrial Life Assurance.**

Industrial life assurance has been subjected to a campaign of a peculiarly vindictive character. Indeed, so unbridled have been the charges brought against the system by a certain type of professional critic that one is left wondering as to what is the source of their activity. Still more surprising has been the fact that these attacks have been taken at their face value by certain noble legislators and have been reproduced in the sedate atmosphere of the House of Lords.

I have no intention of maintaining that the system as conducted up to the passing of the Industrial Insurance Act, 1923, was not capable of improvement, or that all the statements made by its enemies were devoid of truth. Nevertheless, I do assert that the blemishes were grossly exaggerated, and that the facts and figures quoted were spread broadcast, either with the deliberate purpose of misleading public opinion or in ignorance of the conditions which produced them.

According to these critics the prosperity of the great industrial insurance offices has been built upon a gigantic system of defrauding the working classes, and the proofs are alleged to lie in the disproportionately heavy ratio of expenditure to the sums paid in claims, the number of lapsed policies every year, from which the assured have received no benefits nor any return of the premiums paid, the enormous accumulations of reserve capital, and the inflated dividends paid to the shareholders.

Let us consider these charges in their order and in the light of the conditions under which industrial insurance must necessarily be conducted.

Amongst the best managed offices the ratio of expenditure has ranged between 40 and 45 per cent. of the premium income. In one or two instances this ratio has been reduced, notably in the case of one office, which has set up a record with a ratio of

32 per cent by means of its "block" system of collecting. But the higher rate is still the average. Hence it is quite true to say that this item is considerably higher than the annual amount disbursed in meeting claims, but this disproportion is inevitable: it is inherent in the system.

The great majority of industrial premiums are collected weekly in payments of a few coppers. For example, on a life policy of £50 the weekly payment would be about 8d. This entails a house-to-house visitation by an agent of the company every week, and may probably mean, in many cases, several visits before the premium is paid.

The agent's commission is generally 25 per cent., or 2d. on this weekly payment, so that he will have to make at least 120 calls in order to earn a sovereign. In addition he has had the trouble of inducing the assured to invest in a policy, discouraging work in which he receives many more rebuffs than responses. I wonder how the critics would like to earn a living on these terms!

I have taken the case of a £50 policy as this is a very fair average. Many are for larger sums, but a great number are for much less. On this average policy then the insurance company would receive 26s. a year in premiums, out of which it would have to pay all overhead expenses, including issue of the policy form, reasonable investigation, special entries; etc., and all the time it would be incurring the total risk from the time of the first weekly payment. Where is the surrender value in such a transaction? At the end of three years the office would have received £3 18s.: at the end of five years, £6 10s. Again, where is the surrender value?

According to the critics the insurer should be covered to the full amount of his policy all this time and then receive his money back, if, for his own convenience, he should wish to discontinue. But no insurance business could be conducted on those lines. The "risk" is an actuarial calculation taken into account in fixing the premium rate, and the surrender value, if any, is fixed at a proportion of the total received in premiums, which will, collectively, provide adequate cover for all unexpired risks and a margin of reserve for contingencies.

The root principle of sound modern insurance is security for the general body of insurers, and each policyholder has to contribute something towards his own and his fellow policyholders' safety. Any surplus beyond this cover is distributed in bonuses or in other benefits. An analysis of the figures of the last few decades will show that there has been a consistent improvement in the surrender values offered by the better-class offices as they have strengthened their reserves.

As we have seen, however, the average industrial policy, even after it has run a number of years, has a negligible value. But it is no exaggeration to say that by far the greater number of

those that lapse have had a much briefer existence: they have been dropped after a few weekly payments. The policyholder has moved to another district, has lost his job, or deserted his family. The reasons can be multiplied indefinitely. Anyhow, it is stated as in the nature of a public scandal that some five million industrial policies lapse every year, the inference being that this is sheer robbery on the part of the companies. But the same critics fix the paid-up value of these lapsed policies collectively at £500,000, which gives an average value of two shillings apiece! Against this the Prudential alone has twenty-five million policies in force, and last year paid £13,000,000 in claims, so that if the whole of these forfeitures came from this one great company they would represent one twenty-sixth of the sum paid in claims. The other big industrial offices, however—the Pearl, the Refuge, the Britannic, and the rest, whose resources would be prodigious but for comparison with the Prudential—have to be included, thus rendering the value of lapsed policies insignificant.

Even so, however, noteworthy efforts have been made to curtail expenses and to encourage policyholders to continue their premium payments by granting reversionary bonuses and introducing methods of profit-sharing. Substantial savings have been effected in agency expenses by the introduction of the "block" system, whereby definite areas are allocated to salaried agents, in this way avoiding promiscuous canvassing and overlapping. As an instance of the economies achieved by this better organisation, I may again quote the Prudential, which, in the course of two years, has cut down its expenses by well over a million sterling in this manner.

#### **Mr. W. A. Appleton's Opinion.**

I should have more hesitation in expressing my views so emphatically on these controversial points if I had not sought the opinions of Mr. W. A. Appleton, Secretary of the General Federation of Trade Unions, than whom there could be no more experienced authority. On the whole Mr. Appleton was in agreement with what I have written. He dismissed as idle talk the accusations of inflated expense ratios, holding that the Prudential level of 32 per cent. probably represents a bed-rock economy, and is certainly a lower ratio than can be touched by friendly societies run solely for the benefit of their members. Mr. Appleton also confirmed my statement that the alleged scandal of lapsed policies was more or less "mischievous trash," since industrial policies can have no appreciable surrender value for the first few years, clerical work and commission absorbing probably more than is paid in premiums for a year or two. Moreover, when, if any balance remains, it goes towards benefits for policies in force, the latter would suffer if surrender values were invariable and unconditional. The only direction in which further economies

can be made, Mr. Appleton considers, is in a reduction of the commission rate, although it is very doubtful if good men will be willing to work for less.

On the subject of the big reserves accumulated by the companies, Mr. Appleton thought it equally absurd to speak of these as if they were so much liquid capital. They constitute the protection of the assured, and should be recognised for what they are, a form of national investment. I shall have occasion to quote Mr. Appleton in other connections.

There remains to be considered the question of the dividends declared by the big industrial offices. These are high only in relation to the paid-up capital. They are trivial relatively to the gross incomes, profits, and reserves. The financial positions of the three leading industrial companies will suffice for illustration. The Prudential has a total annual income of £32,349,378, of which £6,678,348 comes from interest and dividends. The assets of the Prudential amount to £146,000,000, of which over £70,000,000 are invested in British Government securities. Its paid-up capital is £1,100,000, or little more than 3 per cent. of its gross income. On such a capital and with such resources an average dividend of from 40 to 50 per cent. becomes a bagatelle. On the higher scale, if the whole dividend were shared amongst the 25,000,000 policyholders, there would be less than 5d. per annum for each policy.

The case for the other two companies is the same in degree. In the last balance sheet of the Pearl the total assets were £26,101,896: its total income £8,779,541: and its paid-up capital £640,300. The Refuge has assets amounting to £23,948,396: its income exceeds £7,100,000: and its paid-up capital £300,000.

### **The Industrial Insurance Act.**

The Industrial Insurance Act, 1923, is the outcome of all this agitation which we have been considering, and the moderation of its reforms may be taken as the measure of what the campaign of vituperation was worth. Indeed, the main features of the Act may be said to have been fashioned on the advice of the insurance companies themselves, who were invited to a round-table conference.

The demand for a statutory limitation of expenses has been abandoned as impracticable, and is a reform, as I have shown, which the companies, on their own initiative, have been putting into practice.

Another important condition withdrawn from the original Bill was that requiring the deposit of £20,000 before a collecting society may begin to transact business. The reasons which led the House of Commons to abandon this clause were similar to those given to me by Mr. Appleton long anterior to its withdrawal. His objection was that, whilst the obligation would

eliminate the bogus societies, it would also destroy many small but sound institutions which were doing good work. Rather would he make the discretionary powers of the Registrar of Friendly Societies (who, under his new title, will be the Industrial Insurance Commissioner) as wide as possible in the task of weeding out the unfit, and in encouraging the survival of bona-fide societies of small resources. Otherwise, Mr. Appleton contended, the effect would be to give the big industrial offices a monopoly.

The remaining provisions of the new Act are not of a revolutionary character, and include certain safeguards which are all to the good. One of them which especially appeals to me enacts that none but regular employees of a company may canvass for industrial policies. One of the worst features of the business was the unattached tout, who invaded the accredited agents' ground and was not scrupulous in the representations he made in his haste to draw commission.

Then drastic powers are given to the Commissioner to dissolve a collecting society if, after investigation, he is not satisfied as to its solvency, but in such cases there is always the right of appeal to the High Court against his decisions. One other provision which calls for notice is that fixing a surrender value on policies which have been in force for a minimum period of five years, but the calculation is so intricate to the lay mind that I doubt if one insured in a million would be able to tell whether he was receiving his due in the event of a company underpaying him.

### **Sickness and Unemployment Insurance.**

After the experience of the last two years, we have little to learn about unemployment problems, and we have most emphatically learnt how not to solve them. For one thing, State palliatives for industrial depression have been thoroughly discredited, and have been seen to foster the very ills they were designed to cure. The recipients now expect ninepence for nothing.

Consequently, there has been a sharp reaction in favour of leaving each trade alone to solve its own unemployment problems. The time is, perhaps, hardly ripe for putting the principle into practice: there will have to be a permanent improvement in the relation between employers and employed as a preliminary to its general adoption. Nor is it probable that any scheme will be able to dispense with a Government contribution in some form or another.

Nevertheless, authoritative opinion, apart from doctrinaire prejudices, is almost solidly in favour of shifting the burden to the more efficient shoulders of those most directly concerned in the supply of labour.

The advantages of such an arrangement are two-sided. Not only would a trade be able to deal more effectively, expeditiously



and economically with the funds at its disposal, but it would be directly to its interests to keep the number of unemployed as low as the resources of the industries would permit. The Labour Exchanges are notoriously slack in furnishing information of vacancies to those in search of work, and, in consequence, there is a lamentable waste of public money in "doles," which might in large part be saved by an organisation for the purpose controlled by each industry or by a group of trades.

There are, of course, serious difficulties to be taken into account in framing any scheme on these lines, not the least being the large proportion of unskilled and casual labour attaching to all great industries. In addition there are sections of workers whose productions are absorbed by several distinct trades. Who will be made responsible for the unemployment in these groups?

### Lord Askwith's Views.

I put this and other aspects of the problem before Lord Askwith, the famous industrial peacemaker, whose knowledge of labour subjects is second to none. He regards the principle that each industry should provide, in times of depression, for those upon whose work it relies in times of prosperity as fundamentally sound. But he foresees an obstacle to its general application to labour conditions in this country in the lack of any method of discrimination in assisting the individual unemployed according to his needs. We practically adopt a uniform standard of a married man with three children, but this is obviously too liberal in the case of a man with lighter responsibilities and insufficient where the domestic load is heavier. In Australia, each case is judged on its merits, relief being given in proportion to need. We have a similar system in the army, but are reluctant to apply it to industry, largely because of trade union dislike of departmental prying into the privacy of the workers' homes.

For this and other reasons, Lord Askwith was doubtful if a general national pool could be administered as a permanent factor without causing friction among the several contributories, although he introduced an amendment to the last Unemployment Bill providing that two trades might combine. Extension of combination and working upwards would be more likely to produce effective results than the imposition of any pool of which the division would be a continuous source of dispute.

On the other hand, Lord Askwith considers the present system of dependence on the State as a direct incentive to unemployment. Labour Exchanges encourage employers to accept no responsibility for providing continuity of employment for the workers in their industry. According to how it suits his temporary interests, the employer throws the worker upon the State, and the State supports the latter until it suits another employer to engage him. In the same spirit the workers are encouraged to look to the State to

find employment for them, or the equivalent in wages, instead of relying upon their own efforts.

Hence there is no such thing as collective responsibility or effective machinery for the quick transfer of superfluous workers from one district to another area where they could be employed. With a central exchange, jointly managed by employers and trade unions, a transfer could be arranged between one factory and another with the minimum of delay. A system of this character would give a direct incentive both to employers and to unions to provide work for those persons for whose maintenance the industry was responsible, and to diminish fraud.

Unquestionably the best organisation for directing such a scheme would be, in Lord Askwith's opinion, the Joint Industrial Councils, where they exist. Failing these, the next best available medium would be representative bodies of employers and workers connected with the trades directly interested. Whether the State should continue to make a contribution or not is a controversial point which must be decided by conditions of working, but Lord Askwith is not confident that unemployment insurance will ever be completely divorced from State interference.

#### **Mr. W. A. Appleton's Views.**

This was a subject which I also discussed with Mr. Appleton. He condemned a watertight arrangement, whereby each trade should be wholly responsible for its unemployed, as a bogey of the politicians. It was a favourite dodge for discrediting the scheme. Certainly no advocate of the system ever dreamed of such an unequal distribution. There would, of course, he said, have to be a common pool to which all industries involved would have to contribute, and from which they would draw as their several necessities arose, possibly on a percentage basis. Spread over a long period, drawings would have a tendency to average up, as even the most prosperous trades have their times of abnormal depression. Moreover, the savings in administrative expenses would go far to balance the contributions to such a fund.

For example, a whole body of workmen would be covered at a flat rate, with no commissions or expenses of collecting: bookkeeping would be so simplified that one cheque would serve for a thousand workers. But, perhaps, the greatest advantage would be the removal of the temptation to exploit National Insurance benefits, which has had so demoralising an influence. The Labour Exchanges have shown themselves quite incompetent to deal with the wiles of the work-shy and the fraudulent applicant. The impression that what belongs to the State belongs to anybody is deeply rooted.

#### **Group Insurance.**

The same advantages, Mr. Appleton explained, would attach to Group Insurance, which, however, being a life proposition,

comes into a different category. Still there is no reason why this system should not be a logical continuation of unemployment insurance by industries. Under this scheme an employer undertakes to insure the lives of all his workers at a flat rate, the premiums, paid to an insurance company, being contributed either wholly by himself or in co-operation with the workers.

So far little attention has been given to the potentialities of Group Insurance in this country, but some big developments have taken place in America. To what extent Group Insurance is adapted to the peculiarities of our national life can only be tested by experience, but, on the face of it, it would seem to be best suited to large-scale employment and to specialised trades, such as those in which co-partnership and profit-sharing schemes have met with a measure of success. Gas companies are the outstanding examples. Nevertheless, in America the system is being applied to quite small concerns, and the more enterprising insurance offices are arranging group policies adaptable to workshops having as few as from ten to fifty employees.

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## The World's Shipping Troubles

By **SIR ERNEST GLOVER, Bart.**

*(President of the Chamber of Shipping of the United Kingdom, 1923-24.)*

A SURVEY of world conditions leads to the conclusion that general co-operation on an economic basis throughout the world is essential in order to promote the best interests of all nations. It would be true to say that, whatever may be their racial distinctions and differences, economically all nations of the world have become increasingly interdependent. The tendency of the political groupings, however, has been to deny free play to the natural development of economic interests. At the same time the advance of science—and in particular the adoption of new mechanical devices—the continual rise in the standard of living, and the growth of populations have combined with economic interest and economic necessity to multiply the producing and consuming power of the world.

At present the economic unity of the civilised world is fairly well recognised, but political and racial aspirations continually interfere with the realisation in practice of that economic unity. If we are to progress, the growing unification of political and racial interests must march step by step with the development of the economic interdependence of the whole.

The first step towards approximating political and racial aspirations to economic realities can well be taken by the industrial communities which, like most of the Western nations, are dependent on the free play of economic forces. It should be possible for

such communities so to organise themselves as to bring to bear upon their Governments the pressure of organised expert advisory machinery. Something has already been done, both nationally and internationally, in this direction.

In the international field we have had the International Shipping Conference, at which representatives of every maritime country were present. It was something of an experiment, but it fully justified its inauguration, and is still bearing fruit.

We also have other bodies at work like the International Chamber of Commerce, the International Law Association and the Comité Maritime International, whose business it is to focus opinion on the most important matters of the day, whether economic or legal, and there is no doubt that these organisations will prove in the future valuable mediums for the expression of international opinion. I might suggest that a useful purpose would be served if the bankers not of the Old World only, but of the New World also, could get together and give a lead to public opinion throughout the world on the financial problems which are associated with the recovery of international trade. Apart from politics, we need more expert advice on finance and trade.

For instance, we have seen in this country a remarkable development of co-operation between various interests in dealing with the question of dock and harbour charges. In this development the shipping industry, already well organised through the Chamber of Shipping, took the lead, and the representatives of other industries readily recognised its right to do so owing to its great importance.

### International Trade.

The tendency of different trades to organise themselves seems to be developing, and it may be hoped that such organisation may be the means of keeping before the country and the Government the essential conditions of healthy trading. The multiplication of such organisations in other countries, as well as international conferences of business men from time to time, might reduce the risk of political and racial groupings of the nations over-riding the economic needs of the peoples to the impoverishment of the world.

As a result of the war there has been a tendency on the part of some Governments to interfere in various ways with trade and shipping. That it was necessary during the war to control not only ships but imports and exports, we are all prepared to admit. But it would almost look as if some Government officials, having got a taste for control—and to them it may be attractive—are loath to relinquish their war-powers. In some quarters there seemed to be an idea that Governments by intervening could in some way prevent the ordinary action of supply and demand. No doubt this is possible under the abnormal conditions of war,

when all economic laws are for the time necessarily suspended, but in the long run the law is inexorable and no Government, however powerful, can contravene it

### The Ship Subsidy Bill.

The most striking instance of this tendency was in America, where a proposal, happily dropped, was put forward to subsidise the American Merchant Fleet at the expense of ships under other flags, and we have also seen a drastic raising of import duties, the only result of which must be to shut out the trade of other countries. In so far as America chooses to grant subsidies to her own fleet, out of her own funds, we can make no objection, but when it is proposed to indulge in discrimination against British and other shipping as part of the scheme to subsidise the American Merchant Fleet the position is changed. Is it permissible in equity to penalise other nations in this way? Will it even promote American interests to penalise trade and shipping? Apart altogether from the payments that America expects us, and properly expects us, to make in respect of War Loans, there are the exports of grain, cotton and other things which America desires to ship and which have to be paid for. Practically, payment can be made only in gold, services or goods. Of gold, America has the bulk of the world's supply. The Ship Subsidy Bill, if passed, would have prevented us rendering service in a most obvious way, and by her import duties she would exclude our goods.

The effect of such legislation is undoubtedly to hamper the trade of all countries wishing to export goods to America, and thus prevent that free exchange of commodities which is essential in international trade. The effect of limiting the purchasing power of other countries by restricting their exports to America must be to the disadvantage of the American farmer and producer in selling their goods abroad. Eventually the tendency must be to raise prices in America for all imports, whilst the American exporter would be deprived of all the benefits of the open freight market and thus pay higher charges on his shipments and get no higher price in the consuming markets, where only the world price can be obtained. Thus the result, whilst clearly a disadvantage to other countries, may well prove to be a very doubtful advantage to America.

An influence which has powerfully contributed to the prosperity of the United States has been her access to the international freight market. Her producers and consumers in arranging for sea carriage have always had the advantage of the "haggle of the market." The Americans have thus built up a great foreign trade, apart from natural products such as grain and cotton, in manufactured articles of all kinds. In the past century, though they have left others, with special sea aptitudes, to carry a large proportion of American exports and imports, the population of the United States has increased about eleven-



fold, and the standard of living in America is probably higher than anywhere else.

In France there has been an attempt to restrict French shipments to French ships, but it has apparently been found so difficult to apply the order that it is generally becoming a dead letter.

In Portugal, also, there has been a very serious attempt to buttress Portuguese shipping at the expense of all other. The result, however, seems to have been to raise the freights of all cargoes going to Portugal sufficiently to cover the extra cost and a little more on account of the uncertainty which has been created. The attempt, therefore, to make the foreign shipowner pay has simply resulted in Portugal paying more than it need for the transport service rendered.

### The Dominions.

Turning to our Dominions, we find similar action being taken. In Australia, for instance, the export of wheat is entrusted to pools. These pools have been set up to regulate freights, in other words to interfere with the law of supply and demand. Incidentally their existence calls for a commission of 4 per cent. for division amongst the pools, and 1 per cent. goes to the Commonwealth Line, which comprises the ships owned and run by the Government. Thus we are compelled to pay a commission to one of our chief competitors in the trade, and that competitor with the Australian Government behind it. But in addition to this the Government steps in directly and regards a percentage of our freight as profit and levies income tax thereon. This tax has recently been reduced, but it is still a burden.

We frequently see it urged that Great Britain should obtain its supplies of grain as much as possible from her own kindred beyond the seas—a very laudable project—but our cousins must assist in the movement if it is to make any progress. They must realise, firstly, that there is a carriage of 12,000 miles against 3,000 from the eastern ports of America and Canada or 6,000 from the Argentine, so that the freights from Australia must necessarily be higher: and they must further realise that by their pooling arrangement and taxation they are making things still more difficult.

If we take, for instance, a steamer carrying 8,000 tons of wheat at a freight of 40s. or sometimes lower, the commission and tax will approximate to £1,000. The port charges, cost of loading, etc., are all high, so that a steamer of this size will leave approximately £2,500 behind her in Australia. This has to be paid for in the freight. Australian wheat must come into competition in the consuming markets of the world with other wheat, and can only command the world price. The action of the pools and of the Australian Government, while primarily directed against the shipowner, actually hits the Australian producer. If

these impediments were not put in the way the rate of freight would be about 3s. per ton lower: and the price realised for the wheat would be the same and the Australian farmer would benefit.

If we compare the eastern States of America or Canada with Australia, we find that not only has America the advantage in distance but the costs involved in loading the cargo are not increased by pool expenses and Income Tax, so that the total charges in loading such a cargo will be in the region of £1,000 or £1,200 in the United States or Canada instead of about £2,500 in Australia. If Australia desires to further her trade with the world it should be her object to remove difficulties of transport, which are to her disadvantage, not to increase them.

India is seeking to follow the example of Australia, and has begun by making enquiries from the Chambers of Commerce in India as to the advisability and practicability of raising taxation in the same way. Possibly further consideration may satisfy the authorities there that the only result will be to hamper her trade by reducing the opportunities of disposing of her surplus produce.

### **Mercantile Marine Department.**

While we see foreign countries and our own Dominions trying to improve the conditions of their own shipping, we find no such tendency on the part of our Government. We do not want subsidies, we do not want any favouritism, but we feel very serious apprehensions, especially at a time of depression, at the suggestion that, in addition to all its present burdens, the shipping industry is to be saddled with fifty per cent of the cost of carrying on an expensive Government department over the operations of which it has no control whatever.

At present we pay very substantial fees for surveys, tonnage measurement, and so on as a contribution towards the expense of running this department, and we make no complaint of that. But we feel we are entitled to challenge the suggestion that these fees for surveys, etc., should, roughly speaking, be quadrupled, and that, in addition, the Mercantile Marine offices at the ports should be maintained by charging the shipowners 2s. 6d. for every man signed on or paid off. The effect of these proposals would be at once to throw an additional charge of £300,000 to £400,000 per annum upon the shipping industry at a time when it is struggling for existence.

By what theory of justice or fairness can this be done? The country is covered by a multitude of inspectors. Every day they are inspecting factories and farms, and, indeed, every industrial activity of the country. Is it proposed that agriculture shall be saddled with the burden of the network of agricultural inspections which are carried out in the general public interest? Is it suggested that the cost of factory inspection shall be borne by the manufacturer? Why is shipping alone singled out for the

application of this new system? Once the principle is granted of placing half the burden of Government supervision and inspection upon the shoulders of those who are inspected and supervised, it is not difficult to see how easily and how widely it may spread. No consideration of finance need then deter any Government department from multiplying inspections and supervisions, and from adding to the already great army of those who are engaged in this branch of the activities of the Civil Service.

The principle that taxation implies control will have been abandoned. We shall have to pay the piper without any control of the tune, and the whole mercantile community will be menaced by a multiplication of inspectorates and supervisions undertaken not at the expense of their instigators or of the general revenue of the country but entirely at the expense of their victims.

### Unemployment.

The most serious problem with which the country is faced is unemployment, and it is essential that every body of employers should consider whether there is any possibility of mitigating the evil. The shipowners have done their best to keep men employed. They have run their ships often at considerable loss—I will not say solely for the benefit of the men, as there is always the lingering hope that something may happen to turn what looks like a loss on a voyage into a profit. In the result, however, the men who have been employed have done better than their employers. They have received their wages which are always a first charge on industry. True there has been some reduction in wages afloat, which has been achieved without strikes or difficulties, owing to the wise advice on the part of the leaders, but the level of wages to-day is nevertheless approximately 100 per cent. over pre-war level, which is a percentage obtaining in few other trades.

The Government have suggested amending the unemployment insurance provisions so that each industry may bear its own insurance. There is much to be said in favour of such a scheme—particularly if the workers, keen in discouraging idleness, had some hand in the management in association with the employers, and particularly if it carried with it the abolition of the pernicious Ca' Canny system. Some such scheme, intelligently administered, would prevent slackers drawing doles when they might be earning wages: it would enlist the interest of the workers in seeing that only those who could not get work received insurance payments. But the scheme necessarily involves a known factor in the number of men regularly employed in any industry, and there are manifest difficulties in making it applicable to shipping. The men are not continuously employed: there are inevitable big gaps in the periods of employment. The men do not belong to any particular area, but are a constantly shifting population, and, moreover, it may happen that their employers are never the same for two consecutive voyages. I do not see, therefore, how any such scheme

could be applied to the Mercantile Marine, but that is not to say that a vast industry like British shipping can do nothing towards the solution of a great national difficulty.

### Employment of Seamen.

For a long time I have thought that the method of employing seamen is not satisfactory. The system by which men are signed on for a voyage only is eminently unsatisfactory, as employers never get to know anything of the men and likewise the men know nothing of their employers. There is little or no chance of masters and men getting to know each other and taking a mutual interest in each other. Without an alteration in the law, it would, of course, be impossible to make employment continuous. Not only is the sailor entitled to be paid off at the end of the voyage, but the owner is entitled to pay him off, and thus the practice has been established. I have frequently found, however, that men like a ship and are desirous of signing on for the next voyage. This seems to me to be a preference that should be encouraged. It might be possible to devise a scheme whereby employment should be made as continuous as is practicable. There would certainly be difficulties—cases must arise where for some reason or other steamers will be laid idle for a considerable period and the crew must be paid off. It would be necessary to have a clear understanding that men signing on would be available for working ships in port, and it would be useless unless adopted by all ship-owners.

There can be no doubt that one of the worst features of the present system is the paying off of men with considerable sums of money, which some of them begin to squander at once and often succeed in spending entirely before they look for another ship. The advantage of some such scheme to the men would be obvious: the advantage to the owner would, I think, accrue by saving riggers and shore gangs while in port. But over and above all this there is the advantage, which it is difficult to assess, of having men taking an interest in the ship and in the line and in the the industry as a whole.

Wages, as I have stated, are still very much in advance of pre-war wages, whilst freights have a tendency to approximate to the pre-war level or below it. Much of the British tonnage which is laid up might be brought into service if expenses were lower, and in this way unemployment would be reduced. It may be necessary, in order to get the idle tonnage into commission, to make a further reduction in wages. If such a reduction is to take place the negotiations would be easier if the reduction were coupled with some arrangement whereby the practical continuity of work could be relied upon. I make this suggestion for the consideration of those who have to deal with these questions. It is a difficult problem and perhaps it may be thought better to defer it until markets improve, but it should not be regarded as insoluble.

### Dock and Harbour Charges.

One of the most serious difficulties with which we are confronted in this country is the high level of all port charges, including stevedoring. These were raised during and soon after the war to a level of about 150 per cent. over the pre-war level. This may have been necessary at the time, though it would appear, in some cases at any rate, that the advance was beyond what was really justifiable. It has become a matter of urgency that these charges should be got back to pre-war level at the earliest possible moment. A reduction has been made this year, but it might be carried further. Shipowners, of course, feel the first shock of these charges, but it is not they only who suffer. The country, with upwards of 40,000,000 consumers, poor and rich alike, suffers. The shipowner, knowing the charges he has to pay, naturally endeavours to make his freight cover the expenses and may succeed in doing so. This means that imports, food and other things, cost more to the consumer—not only is this the case, but as a country we lose business. The transshipment trade, which once formed a large part of our shipping work in this country, has been handicapped practically out of existence.

But there is a further point to consider. Our competitors in the near Continental ports have considerably lower charges, and, consequently, are so much the better able to compete with us in the trade of the world. It is a matter of common knowledge that an owner would much rather go to Antwerp, Rotterdam, or even Hamburg, than to London or Hull. This used not to be the case, but we find now that not only are the charges lower, but the despatch in loading and discharging are better, which means that the ships are at sea, earning freight, for longer periods. Good progress, however, has been made in getting dues reduced in the various ports of the country. The surcharge over 1913 has come down. This is something to go on with, but efforts must be continued to get charges still further down in the interests, not of shipping only, but of every industry. In the negotiations with the Dock and Harbour Authorities, Sir Frederick Lewis had figures to show that the same steamer discharging a cargo of grain would pay in total expenses in London £935, Hull £867, Bristol £860, while charges in Antwerp would be £375, and in Rotterdam £600.

The contrast can be followed in other directions. If we consider ore, we find that a steamer discharging at Middlesbrough would pay about sixpence per ton more than at Rotterdam and occupy six or seven days as against two or three: thus Middlesbrough must pay a higher freight than Rotterdam to obtain its raw material. When the ore has been converted into finished steel for export, then a berth steamer loading a parcel of 1,500 tons of cargo would spend £750 at Middlesbrough as against £350 at Antwerp—roughly 5s. per ton more. The English exporter was, therefore, prejudiced in competition with the near Continent in selling rails,



girders, plates, etc., to the extent of about 6s. a ton, simply on account of the heavy charges.

In the interest of the trade of the country, therefore, the necessity of keeping a watchful eye on our competitors for the world's trade should continue to be urged on all the authorities concerned.

I could give numerous examples of comparison with French, Spanish and Italian ports, and with hardly an exception the advantage is all in favour of going to foreign rather than British ports

### Documentary Committee.

There is one other matter I should like to touch on—one which, perhaps, is rather of a domestic nature. We have heard a great deal about Hague Rules, 1921 ; Rules for the Carriage of Goods by Sea ; and finally Hague Rules, 1922 ; and we are within measurable distance of having legislation which will prevent us getting clauses in Bills of Lading limiting our responsibilities beyond the terms of these Rules. In the hope that these Rules will be adopted internationally and be made compulsory in all countries, we have agreed to legislation in this country. Many of us prefer freedom of contract, whereby we can settle our own documents in consultation with our Charterers and adapt them to the peculiarities and necessities of the varying trades : but for the sake of uniformity, we have waived our objections to being bound.

While, however, there was considerable agitation to compel shipowners to recognise the claims of merchants to have fair treatment, I have failed to observe any corresponding agitation to prevent merchants imposing unreasonable conditions upon shipowners. It is true that there is a Documentary Committee of the Chamber of Shipping, which has framed many documents in the past and continues its efforts to secure reasonable documents which would be fair to all parties. It is, however, severely handicapped by the apparent apathy of a good many shipowners. Some owners do not appear to realise the struggles of past years to obtain fair and reasonable terms, and the necessity of holding together to maintain the terms that have been established.

Before the war the Chamber of Shipping charters were in general use. During the war they were of necessity altered in many respects, and now that we have fallen into bad times, we find a disposition on the part of merchants to impose their own conditions—to ignore many of the provisions of these charters, and, in fact, in some cases, to refuse to meet and discuss terms. The time has come when shipowners should determine that they will loyally support the Documentary Committee in effecting improvements and insisting absolutely on the Chamber of Shipping documents in their entirety. It may mean a fight, but unless we are to get into the position of accepting anything that

is dictated to us we must make a stand. It may mean some sacrifice—it may mean sometimes bringing a ship home in ballast, but it will pay in the long run.

If it is made clear that British shipowners are going to abide strictly by their documents, I do not think that we shall have much to fear from foreign competition. The foreign owner is keen on getting the best terms and, though there may be some who would not go to the length I have indicated above, there would not be sufficient to provide all the tonnage required, and promises were given by all the countries which took part in the International Shipping Conference in 1921 that a strenuous endeavour would be made to bring all their owners into line. If whole-hearted support is given to the Documentary Committee, I feel convinced that there will be an ample reward for any temporary inconvenience or loss that may be suffered in the advantage gained by the removal from our charter-parties of clauses and conditions which are detrimental to the interests of British shipping.

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## Lloyd's Register Returns.

THE shipbuilding returns of Lloyd's Register for the third quarter of 1923 bear gloomy witness to the general depression in British dockyards. There is a decrease of about 67,000 tons as compared with the figures for the previous quarter in the nominal amount of shipping in course of construction, and of no less than 346,000 tons on the corresponding figures for 1922. The figures are even worse if a closer examination is made, for from the present nominal amount under construction of 1,271,195 tons should properly be deducted the 242,000 tons on which work has been suspended for a long time or has been held up by labour troubles. Hence if an accurate comparison is to be made with the figures for normal times, the tonnage actually under construction is reduced to no more than 1,029,000 tons, which establishes a low record for the last fourteen years. The average tonnage under construction during the twelve months immediately preceding the war was 1,890,000 tons, so that the present total is as much as 861,000 tons below that average.

During the quarter under review the tonnage launched in Great Britain and Ireland amounted to only 66,474 tons, as against 239,373 tons for the quarter ending June 30th, whilst work was started on only twenty-nine vessels, of 111,680 tons, in comparison with seventy-seven vessels, of 241,283 tons, on which work was commenced in the June quarter.

To turn to foreign figures, the total shipping under construction in other countries amounted to 1,106,502 tons, which, however,

includes about 83,000 tons on which work has been suspended, the actual amount of new construction, therefore, being 1,024,000 tons for the third quarter of the present year. This total is 50,000 tons less than that for the June quarter. To take the several countries separately, the respective figures are as follows:—Germany and Danzig, 345,985; Italy, 145,423; France, 142,660; Holland, 104,491; United States, 99,383 tons.

The gross foreign tonnage launched or commenced during the quarter cannot be estimated in full, because German figures are not available, but with this omission, the total given amounted to 227,549 tons launched and 100,372 tons commenced. The total tonnage nominally under construction throughout the world is 2,377,697 tons, this total, however, including 325,000 tons in suspension. In this connection it is significant that all but 83,000 tons of this suspended trade occurs in Great Britain and Ireland. If consideration is given only to the volume of work actually in course of construction, the total is only 2,052,000 tons, which, compared with the pre-war total of 3,446,558, recorded for June 30th, 1913, shows a shrinkage of no less than 1,394,000 tons.

To turn to the more novel features of note, 28 steamers and motor vessels, each of over 1,000 tons, and with a total tonnage of 178,590 tons, are being constructed for the carriage of oil in bulk, and of these tankers, fourteen, of 92,796 tons, are being built in British and Irish dockyards. Those vessels which are to be fitted with internal combustion engines represent 460,868 tons, which works out at 24½ per cent. of the steam tonnage under construction. Of these, 24 vessels are of between 10,000 and 20,000 tons each, and 10 vessels of over 20,000 tons. Great Britain and Ireland claim 25 of these vessels, 7 of which are of the larger size.

Lloyd's Register Annual Report for the year ending June 30th, 1923, shows that the total of new vessels to which classes were assigned by the Committee during the twelve months was 429, of 1,616,225 tons gross, a reduction of 36 per cent. on the preceding year. Of the 429, 295 were built in Great Britain and Ireland. Plans for 424 vessels, of 1,065,850 tons, were passed; this was an increase on 1921-2, but far below pre-war average, and the vessels may not actually be built. The total tonnage of merchant vessels afloat at the end of June holding the society's classification amounted to 28,208,206 tons, and was the highest total yet recorded, exceeding by nearly a million tons the similar figure for last year. The total represents 9,951 vessels, of which 5,528 are British, of 14,297,213 gross tonnage, all steel and iron steamers. A considerable number of these vessels are unemployed and not likely to be employed.

Apropos of idle tonnage, returns compiled by Dr. Isserlis, the statistician of the Chamber of Shipping, show the total number of British ships laid up on October 1st was 374 of 727,134 tons net, as compared with 347 vessels of 667,527 tons net on July 1st.

# The Wealth and Prospects of China

By J. ELLIS BARKER.

CHINA, at the end of 1923, seems no nearer internal peace than at any time during the last three or four years. The report of the China Association takes a gloomy view of the prospect, and at the Annual Meeting a resolution was carried in favour of measures being taken by the powers to "assist" her towards "national unity, settled conditions and financial equilibrium." China is one of the poorest countries in the world, but potentially she is one of the richest, and possibly the richest of all. Herein lies the reason that for decades the Western nations and Japan have endeavoured to exploit it in some way or other. However, only lately China's vast possibilities have attracted the attention which they deserve. The wealth of nations depends on the physical and human resources which they possess. With regard to both, China is most wonderfully endowed. In the opinion of most people, China is a purely agricultural land which is greatly over-populated. It is often described as the most densely peopled land in the world. That description is quite erroneous, as the following figures show:—

|                                                            | Population per square mile. |
|------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Japan . . . . .                                            | 392.68                      |
| United Kingdom. . . . .                                    | 379.53                      |
| Italy . . . . .                                            | 332.01                      |
| Germany . . . . .                                          | 320.35                      |
| France . . . . .                                           | 195.04                      |
| China (18 provinces only) . . . . .                        | 197.15                      |
| India . . . . .                                            | 174.83                      |
| Greater China (with Manchuria,<br>Mongolia, &c.) . . . . . | 75.96                       |

\* The figures given show that, per square mile, the population of China proper is only about half as great as that of the United Kingdom. Among the outlying provinces, Thibet cannot carry a large population. However, Manchuria and Mongolia alone are considerably larger than China of the 18 provinces. Both Manchuria and Mongolia are extraordinarily fruitful and are rich in minerals. Yet Manchuria and Mongolia combined contain less than 20,000,000 people. The most densely inhabited countries of the world are not Japan, the United Kingdom and Belgium, as is usually believed, but Egypt and Java. The position in Egypt is unique. But Java may fairly be compared with China. Although large portions of Java are still covered with virgin forests in which tigers and rhinoceroses roam, the population of that wonderful isle comes to very nearly 700 per square mile. In view of China's latent wealth, it is quite conceivable

that that great country can easily support a population two or three times as large as the present population, that it can support a population as great as the entire population of the world.

Various authorities have given widely differing estimates as to China's numbers. According to the Chinese post office estimate of 1920, the country has a population of 427,679,214. The population is extraordinarily dense in certain circumscribed areas, particularly about the rivers and the coast. The Yangtse Valley alone contains about 180,000,000 people. In the interior there is no over-population. The development of the country has taken place principally in those parts which possess more or less adequate communications, especially by water. Proper roads are as yet practically unknown. The interior, unless opened by waterways, depends largely on footpaths and on mere tracks. Consequently, it is impossible to carry away crops from the interior which is served by these primitive means of communication.

The agricultural soil of China is extraordinarily prolific. Geologically, China consists partly of limestone, partly of loess. Loess is characteristic of Northern China. It forms a layer of a dustlike soil which covers gigantic stretches of the country, and in some parts is 2,000 feet thick. It is ideal soil for raising crops, and it has been explained that it consists of the dust and sand of the Central Asian steppes, which have been blown towards the south during untold ages, and become mixed with vegetable matter. China, like the United States, extends through all zones, and can produce not only rice, cotton, bananas, figs, grapes, oranges, peaches, &c., but wheat, apples, oats and other northern foodstuffs as well.

The economic and political development of nations is greatly promoted by waterways. Providence has given to China probably the most wonderful river system of the world. The Yangtse is 3,200 miles long and it drains 756,500 square miles, a territory seven times as large as the United Kingdom. It is navigable practically all the year by steamers of 5,000 to 6,000 tons as far as Hankow, 595 miles from the river mouth, and by smaller sea ships up to Ich'ang, while small boats can proceed beyond Suifu, 1,630 miles from the coast. A gigantic volume of water goes down the river. At high tide that mighty stream rises 60, 70, 80 feet and more. Other Chinese rivers and the tributaries of the Yangtse display similar characteristics. The regulation of the Yangtse and of other rivers is absolutely necessary. At present these often break their banks and change their course, causing vast destruction and drowning millions of men. River regulation will make the channels navigable to the far interior, and will incidentally furnish water for canals and for providing untold millions of hydro-electrical horse-power. The construction of an adequate system of roads and rail-roads, together with the regulation of the rivers and the construction and improvement of canals, will



greatly stimulate production and trade, and will allow the doubling of the population by the development of agriculture alone. Chinese agriculture is frequently described as being the most highly developed in the world. That description is scarcely justified. The Chinese cultivators are exceedingly industrious and painstaking. However, agricultural methods are largely very backward. In the thinly peopled districts, especially in Manchuria and Mongolia, the most powerful labour-saving machinery can be used with the greatest advantage, and even in the highly developed and densely peopled districts, labour-saving machines, improved tools and improved methods may vastly increase production. The backwardness of Chinese agricultural methods may be seen by the fact that China has lost her ancient silk monopoly to Japan and her old tea monopoly to India, Ceylon and Java. The new rulers of China have become convinced that scientific methods of agriculture are needed, and they have created notable institutions for modernising methods, for providing the cultivators with scientific guidance, for improving seeds, introducing new fertilisers, new machinery, for improving the breed of animals, for improving and standardising the production of tea, silk, &c. China is supposed to be a treeless country. But there are large forests in the inaccessible interior and the benefits of afforestation are becoming widely recognised. The production of cotton is rapidly being extended. It is quite possible that in a relatively short number of years China may become the largest cotton producer in the world.

The principal raw materials of modern industry are coal and iron, and coal is by far the more important of the two. According to the figures placed before the International Geological Congress held in Canada in 1913, which are the most authoritative available, the coal resources of Asia are as follows in tons :—

|                      |                   |
|----------------------|-------------------|
| China . . . . .      | 995,587,000,000   |
| Siberia . . . . .    | 173,879,000,000   |
| India . . . . .      | 79,001,000,000    |
| Indo-China . . . . . | 20,002,000,000    |
| Japan . . . . .      | 7,970,000,000     |
| Persia . . . . .     | 1,858,000,000     |
| Manchuria . . . . .  | 1,208,000,000     |
| Korea . . . . .      | 81,000,000        |
| <hr/>                |                   |
| TOTAL . . . . .      | 1,279,586,000,000 |

The figure given for China has been criticised in various quarters. A more or less reliable estimate can be given only when scientific mining and prospecting have become widespread. However, we know already that China occupies with regard to coal an absolutely unique position. In every country possessing coal the deposits occur only in a few places, with the result that population becomes

congested about the coal mines, which become centres of manufacturing. In China coal occurs apparently almost everywhere. That mineral is found and more or less unscientifically exploited in every one of the 18 provinces and in the outlying territories as well. Besides, Chinese coal is of excellent quality. Anthracite is the most valuable coal. In England, in the United States, and in Germany the quantity of anthracite existing is relatively very small. It accounts only for a small percentage of the total quantity of coal known. In China, on the other hand, anthracite is found almost everywhere. Apparently that country possesses the bulk of that most precious fuel.

In addition to coal, China produces iron, copper, tin, zinc, lead, gold, silver, manganese, antimony, mercury, tungsten, arsenic, asbestos, magnesite, petroleum and many other minerals. Some of these have been exploited in the most rudimentary fashion for thousands of years. In the absence of scientific exploration, we can form no opinion as to whether China contains large, medium or only small quantities of minerals apart from coal, but even if she possessed no native minerals other than coal, her gigantic wealth in that alone would enable her to establish great manufacturing industries of every kind. She might, for instance, draw iron ore from the boundless stores of India, which is very poor in coal.

The shrewdest business men of the world clearly recognise that China has a great economic future. Mr. T. W. Lamont, of the great banking and finance house of J. P. Morgan & Co., went to the Far East, and he reported on his return that it was "a region which, if properly developed and encouraged by American business men and investors, bids fair for the long future to be the greatest foreign outlet in the world for American manufacture and enterprise." In the course of his address before the American Manufacturers' Export Association, he stated, referring to China in the most eulogistic terms:—

A great system of railways must be built over there, and its inception should not be long delayed. Those railways will require a fair share of American steel, of American bridges, American equipment. The country calls for electrical equipment—for all the multitudinous forms of farming implements required in that intensely agricultural land, now cultivated with the rude implements of the long ago. China will demand cotton mill machinery on a great scale and machine making tools. Then it will require quantities of mining machinery, both for the baser and the precious metals. Finally, those four hundred millions of kindly, honest and highly intelligent people will require, on a prodigious scale, the many domestic appurtenances that American ingenuity has evolved. Don't forget, too, that to keep four hundred million people supplied with moving picture shows will be quite a task even for Americans.

For centuries China had been living in the past. Frequently she was likened to a slumbering giant. But now that giant is awaking from the Rip Van Winkle slumber that has run for nearer twenty centuries than twenty years. The giant is rubbing his eyes and opening them to new visions. There is a great growth of national feeling going on in China, a feeling that

if we Americans encourage and assist it is bound to liberalise, to modernise China. Among the universities there is close study of government and economics. Chinese students, who are the aptest of any I have met in the whole world, are scattering throughout their country and spreading the gospel of better government, better living.

We must not be misled by Press reports of disorder and factional fighting in China. It is true that there is a lack of organisation, that the Central Government is not strong. But it is less than ten years since China shook herself free from the thrall of an ancient and absolute monarchy. She cannot be expected to settle down into the grounded ways of a modern republic without occasional set-backs. . . . China in her march towards stable self-government has to traverse valleys as well as hills before she reaches the heights whence she can view the promised land of genuine stability.

American business men contemplate not only developing trade with China and opening up the country by building railways, etc., but they intend to stimulate economic life in that gigantic country by transferring to it American industries and availing themselves of cheap and abundant raw material, cheap and efficient Chinese labour, the low cost of land and buildings, and low taxation "The Magazine of Wall Street" stated some time ago:—

America's greatest opportunity in China lies in the development of manufacturing enterprises. China is not, and has never been, a manufacturing country in the modern sense, and the total of all its manufacturing establishments of all kinds using modern machinery will not reach two thousand. China possesses an abundance of all raw materials, has an unlimited amount of labour which is easily trained, low labour costs, no income or excess profits tax, almost insignificant native taxes, by comparison with ours, and fair laws. American manufacturing in China will bring the markets of the world to our feet. The cost of production due to cheap raw material and low labour costs will enable the manufacturer there to compete favourably in all markets. The Chinese manufacturer will have lower freight rates to the Near East, Siberia, Russia, India, Australia, South Africa, and the Phillippine Islands for export business, and at the same time will have the domestic market at a price which will defy competition, at the price of foreign labour plus freight and duty. These facts should receive the careful attention of all American manufacturers who realise the value of foreign business and who are watching cost sheets and overhead charges. This field has been entirely overlooked by the American manufacturer, and it should receive his serious consideration, for beyond the peradventure of doubt, he will find working conditions more favourable and the margin of profit much larger than I have described it.

The writer was not correct in stating that China had been "entirely overlooked by the American manufacturer," for some enterprising men have availed themselves of the advantages offered by that country with the most remarkable results. According to the "American Manufacturers' Record," the following has been the experience in manufacturing electric bulbs and lamps in China:—

About three years ago the General Edison Company, finding freight rates extremely high on the Pacific and appalled by the loss on account of breakage in the shipments of electric lamps and globes to the Far East, decided to establish a small plant in Shanghai, and there to attempt to manufacture lamps for the Far Eastern market, renting therefor an old, silk filature factory near Shanghai. There was no difficulty about glass making or blowing bulbs, for there were plenty of Chinese workers who understood this. In order to get the pick of these glassblowers, they began

## The Wealth and Prospects of China

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by paying from 80 cents to \$1 (Mexican silver) for a 10 hour day. At the present rate of exchange this is equivalent to from 32 to 40 cents a day in American money.

The Chinese bulb blowers produce from 1,700 to 2,000 bulbs apiece per day. The average production per operator in the United States is 1,000, and American bulb blowers get \$10 a day, American gold. In other words, it only costs one-fortieth to one-fiftieth as much to produce a glass bulb for an electric light in this Chinese factory as it does in the United States. After the bulbs are made they are passed on to the lamp makers, who receive 40 cents. Mexican silver per day, or about 16 cents. American money, for stringing the filaments and making the lamps. The pay in American factories for this class of work, is \$4.50 a day, American gold, as compared to 16 cents a day paid to the Chinese women and girl operators.

One astonishing feature of these lamps made in China is that the life of the lamp in China is about 1,500 hours, while the United States standard is only 1,000 hours. During the three years that this factory has been operated a most remarkable result has been attained. The output of the plant last year was over 3,500,000 lamps. The cost of production was so low, compared to any other spot in the world, that every lamp that could be spared from the local demand was shipped to Europe, though quite a large number had been going to Australia. The success of this experiment has been such that the company has bought a large plot of land adjacent to the old mill and is now beginning the construction of 14 modern factory buildings, each to be 300 ft. long by 80 ft. wide.

Obviously China has not only exceedingly large and valuable physical resources, but she has human resources which are at least as important. The country contains not only between 400,000,000 and 500,000,000 people and has room for two or three times as many, but the Chinese are perhaps the best workers in the world, owing to their intelligence, industry, frugality and general ability. The Chinese are by far the best workers in Asia. The Indians are almost as numerous, but they are a nation of philosophers and dreamers, while the Japanese are a nation of artists and warriors. The Chinese have infinitely larger material resources than the Indians and Japanese combined, and, in addition, the Chinese people are infinitely better workers. Indian natives and patriotic Japanese will freely admit that they cannot compete on equal terms with the inhabitants of China. Chinese immigrants are unwelcome in Japan for the same reason that they are unwelcome in the United States. The Chinese workers are willing to accept lower wages than Japanese workers because they are more frugal, and their output will be from 50 per cent. to 100 per cent. greater than that of the Japanese workers. At present Japan is prosperous while China is poor. Japan's prosperity, like that of the United States, is largely due to the policy of high Protection. If Japan opened the country to free competition, she would be swamped before long with Chinese goods and her industries would be ruined.

During the last few decades Japan has built up a gigantic cotton industry. Not so very long ago Japan produced no cotton goods. She imported a few machines from England and swiftly established an extraordinarily prosperous industry. Her progress

in cotton manufacturing may, perhaps, best be gauged by her imports of raw cotton. These have increased as follows :—

|      |                |
|------|----------------|
| 1891 | 6,998,534 yen. |
| 1900 | 58,500,002 „   |
| 1910 | 157,823,603 „  |
| 1920 | 741,800,623 „  |

For a long time England absolutely dominated the markets of the world with her cotton goods. England produced cottons of every kind far more cheaply than any other nation because she employed the most perfect labour-saving machinery which her citizens had invented. She easily undersold and destroyed the old-established cotton industries of the Far East which employed labour-wasting handlooms. The cheapness of labour of the Far East proved unavailing until Japan showed to the Asiatics that Lancashire can be beaten by combined perfect labour-saving machinery and cheap Asiatic labour. Japan produces not only practically all the cotton goods which her people require, but in addition exports vast quantities. The cotton industry has created numerous millionaires in Japan. Naturally, many ambitious Japanese and Chinese business men have established cotton mills in China, where labour is cheaper and more efficient than in Japan, and where, besides, vast quantities of rather low grade cotton are grown. Cotton production in China can be greatly increased and the quality can easily be improved while Japan has no room for cotton production. China seems pre-destined to become a cotton grower and manufacturer on the very largest scale. The growth of the cotton industry in China and Japan may be visualised from the following table :—

| Cotton Spindles in |           |           |  |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------|--|
|                    | Japan.    | China.    |  |
| 1913               | 2,414,000 | 1,000,000 |  |
| 1914               | 2,657,000 | 1,050,000 |  |
| 1915               | 2,807,000 | 1,100,000 |  |
| 1916               | 2,875,000 | 1,250,000 |  |
| 1917               | 3,060,000 | 1,300,000 |  |
| 1918               | 3,227,000 | 1,480,000 |  |
| 1919               | 3,488,000 | 1,530,000 |  |
| 1920               | 3,813,000 | 1,400,000 |  |
| 1921               | 4,161,000 | 1,800,000 |  |
| 1922               | 4,627,000 | 2,344,000 |  |

Between 1913 and 1922 the number of cotton spindles in Japan has increased by less than 90 per cent. while the cotton spindles in China have increased by more than 130 per cent. The increase of Chinese cotton spindles is particularly remarkable if we remember that China passed through a prolonged period of revolution, civil war, disorder and famine, while Japan has been prosperous and at peace. Not only Chinese and Japanese business men, but English, American, French, Belgian and other men of enter-



prise are establishing cotton mills and factories in China. Imports of textile machinery have spectacularly risen since the war as the following figures show:—

|      |   |   |   |   |   |            |       |
|------|---|---|---|---|---|------------|-------|
| 1913 | . | . | . | . | . | 830,000    | taels |
| 1914 | . | . | . | . | . | 2,000,000  | "     |
| 1918 | . | . | . | . | . | 1,600,000  | "     |
| 1919 | . | . | . | . | . | 3,700,000  | "     |
| 1920 | . | . | . | . | . | 6,900,000  | "     |
| 1921 | . | . | . | . | . | 26,700,000 | "     |

If industry in China has advanced so mightily during a period of unparalleled disorder and distress, how then will it develop if peace and good government should be established once more, and if China should become modernised and if she should follow the great example set by Japan, which is so much poorer in both material and human resources than China? That question answers itself.

It is widely assumed that the Chinese are very different from the Japanese, that the Chinese are conservative and hostile to progress and innovation, while the Japanese are perhaps the most progressive nation in the world. That conception is quite erroneous. In the time of the Manchus, the Chinese were indeed hostile to innovations of every kind and were hostile to the Europeans. However, that hostility did not emanate from the Chinese themselves, but from the small alien minority which ruled them, and which feared that an enlightened progressive nation would throw off the Manchu yoke. Immediately after the fall of the Manchu dynasty, the attitude of the Chinese changed completely. Tens of thousands of Chinese students flocked to the European schools and colleges established in China, to Japan, to the United States and to European countries, eager to learn all the West could teach them. They abandoned the study of the Chinese classics for that of modern economics, banking, chemistry, etc. With feverish haste the Chinese endeavour to make up for the time which they have lost under the Manchu rule. Among Chinese natives eminent foreign-trained doctors, surgeons, chemists and scientists of every kind may be found. Progress has become a veritable passion with the people.

Many pessimists believe and are predicting that the country is drifting towards irretrievable ruin. That is not the opinion of the writer of these pages. History teaches us that nations require decades to settle down to a new form of government, that a revolution leads, as a rule, to years of disorder and of civil war. That has been the experience of France and England. We can, therefore, not wonder that China has not yet found a stable form of government. However, she will probably evolve before long a form of government in accordance with the spirit and the genius of the people. The Chinese nation is the oldest in the world. It is the only nation of antiquity which has survived to the present

day. China was a great nation in the time of Assyria, Babylonia, Egypt, and Phœnicia. The civilisation and the very language of these great nations have disappeared, while China has kept an unbroken record owing to the extraordinary vitality and adaptability of the people. A nation with such a history does not easily disappear. Confucius and the obscure builders of China who preceded him builded better than they knew. China has passed through numerous revolutions, but she has weathered every storm. China has been conquered by foreign nations, but she has absorbed all her conquerors. The remarkable vitality of the Chinese, like that of the Jews, is probably due to the extraordinarily strong family feeling among the people. The family, not the State, is the basis of China's social and political organisation. The delicate machinery of the State can rapidly be overthrown. The tradition of the family which has been created in the course of thousands of years is well nigh indestructible.

The political organisation of China has always been an exceedingly loose one. The various portions of the country have always enjoyed a great deal of self government. The power of the central government over the provinces has been very small. Authority was exercised largely by admonition. In the absence of a powerful administrative organisation, such as that which exists in every modern country, the Chinese developed most interesting organisations which took the place of a great official apparatus. The citizens organised themselves for the protection of their interests and of their trades. In the West, guilds, trade unions, chambers of commerce, etc., are of recent creation. In China they have existed for thousands of years and they are exceedingly powerful. These organisations protect their members against attacks and injustice, they support them in illness and old age, they fine or expell those who break the established rules and regulations, and they handle the weapon of the strike and of the boycott with a success which should arouse the envy of the leaders of the best organised British trade unions. These voluntary organisations have been the real rulers of China in the past. The industrious masses have borne misrule and tyranny with patience for some considerable time, but in the end, when disorder became insupportable, the great organisations have roused the masses and have destroyed their tyrants. At present a similar movement against the established military autocrats is noticeable and very likely China will, before long, find its salvation in its own way. There is, of course, the danger that foreign nations may delay or hamper this process. It is freely asserted in China that peace would have returned to the country long ago had it not been for the intervention of Japan. The Chinese maintain that Japan has caused most of China's troubles, that the Japanese subsidise the revolutionaries because they desire to use the existence of disorder as a pretext for interfering in China's domestic affairs,

dividing the country against itself, subduing it, and making it a Japanese protectorate and an object of exploitation.

It is frequently stated that the Chinese have no capacity for self-government, that the Chinese officials are utterly unscrupulous and criminally rapacious. It is true that in the olden days Chinese mandarins enriched themselves without much hindrance on the part of the central authorities. But it must be remembered that, until comparatively recent times, the payment of officials was unknown even in Europe. In the absence of a stable currency and of modern financial arrangements, portions of the country were handed over to noblemen or to financiers who were to hand over certain sums or supplies, or who were to furnish soldiers to the central government, and who were allowed to recoup themselves by taxing the people in their district according to their fancy. In China a similar system has obtained down to the fall of the Manchu régime. The local administrators received either no payment or a trifling sum, but they had to pay very heavily for their offices. Consequently they were allowed to squeeze the people, and the central government did not interfere unless officials went too far.

The Chinese are individually the most honest people in the world. The word of a Chinese is considered throughout the East as good as a formal agreement signed in the presence of witnesses. After the revolution the most progressive Chinese wished to introduce the European system of a paid bureaucracy and to abolish the traditional system established in China. They found it impossible to carry through this reform because means were lacking. The Chinese system of taxation is in its infancy. In the past the central government required and obtained only trifling amounts from the people. The reform of China's system of taxation was made impossible by disorder and civil war, and by the fact that according to treaty the only reliable and substantial sources of revenue were controlled by Europeans, were mortgaged to the Western nations, and the amounts were strictly limited. The consequence has been that it has been impossible to introduce a regularly paid bureaucracy on the Western model, and that administrative dishonesty and oppression have become worse than ever because of general disorder and civil war coupled with lack of means for creating order and good government.

At present the finances of China are in disorder. The country has borrowed recklessly from foreign and domestic lenders, and the amounts thus obtained have been partly spent on armaments and warfare, partly they have been wasted or stolen. Still there is no reason to despair of China's finances. The financial position of nations, as of individuals, depends on two factors, on production and thrift. The great material and human resources of China, and the industry, intelligence and thrift of its teeming population,

will not only provide the nation with vast wealth, but will yield a yearly surplus of production over consumption, of income over expenditure, which will be at the disposal of the State in the form of taxes.

The Chinese are not merely excellent workers in agriculture, handicraft, modern manufacturing and transport, etc.—there are numerous first-rate electricians, wireless operators, motor-car engineers, etc., in China—but they have a considerable talent for industrial and commercial management. In all parts of the world one meets with able Chinese merchants who have risen from the utmost poverty to affluence. In the Straits Settlements and elsewhere immigrants from China control the local commerce and industries.

The ability of the Chinese is shown by the striking success of their post office. A modern post office was created in China only a few years ago. Its operations have increased with extraordinary rapidity, as the following figures show:—

|            | Offices &<br>Agents. | Articles<br>Posted. | Parcels<br>Posted. |
|------------|----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1901 . . . | 176                  | 3,500,000           | 126,000            |
| 1906 . . . | 2,096                | 31,994,143          | 400,120            |
| 1911 . . . | 6,201                | 116,748,914         | 954,740            |
| 1916 . . . | 8,797                | 233,234,373         | 2,232,100          |
| 1920 . . . | 10,469               | 400,886,935         | 4,126,220          |

It is particularly creditable to the Chinese that the post office is carried on almost exclusively by natives. Of the 30,540 employees only 115 were foreigners in 1920. At the beginning the entire management was in the hands of foreigners.

The details given in these pages show that China possesses the most promising economic prospects. Agricultural production can, according to all appearances, be doubled and trebled, and on the basis of the power developed from the superabundant coal of the country and from its waterfalls, vast manufacturing industries can be created. Labour in China is exceedingly cheap and exceedingly efficient, and as the country has about four times as many inhabitants as the United States, it seems quite possible that China may before long become as important as the United States as a manufacturing nation and possibly much more important. In international business the most important factor is cheapness. The cost of most goods consists in the wages paid to labour. It is quite conceivable that China can produce coal, iron, engineering goods, textiles, etc., in large quantities, at half or less the present world prices. Not so very long ago similar forecasts were made with regard to Japan which then had begun manufacturing on European lines. These forecasts were laughed to scorn. It was believed that the Japanese could only produce pretty porcelain, lacquer goods and similar knick-knacks. Since then Japan has become exceedingly important as a producer of coal, iron, engineer-

ing ware of every kind, electrical goods, chemicals, ships, textiles, etc., although she is far less favourably situated than China, because Japan is very poor in raw materials and because her people are inferior to the Chinese in commercial and industrial ability and in working power.

Capital flows where it can be most profitably employed. Vast amounts of capital have, during the last few years, been sent to China and have been used in creating the machinery of modern production and modern commerce. However, only a very small beginning has been made, because capital has been deterred by chronic disorder and civil war. As soon as order and stability emerge, vast amounts of foreign capital will be invested in China. Besides, native capital will engage in developing the industries of the country. Surplus capital exists in China, but it is as yet rather timorous, and it must not be forgotten that surplus capital can easily and rapidly be created in a land such as China. Surplus capital is nothing but profits made in commerce and industry. It is nothing but the difference between the cost of producing goods and the price which these goods will fetch in the market. China can undoubtedly produce a large range of goods at half the world prices and less, but as the Chinese are excellent business men, they will not be so foolish as to sell their goods at half the world prices. They will presumably sell them either at world prices or slightly lower, with the result that goods made in China will yield far larger profits than goods made elsewhere, and these surplus profits will be available for investment in additional machinery, etc.

Industrial and commercial progress depend largely on communications. Good harbours, easily navigable waterways, and an abundance of railways and roads have created the wealth of the Old World, of the United States, and of Japan. China has a large number of excellent harbour sites, but she has few adequately equipped ports. She has the most wonderful system of rivers in the world, but these require regulating and need modern steamboats, barges and loading facilities. She has practically no roads except a few fragmentary pieces here and there, and the gigantic country possesses only a few thousand miles of railways. Enlightened Chinese recognise that the doubling and trebling of production is impossible as long as these primitive and impossible methods of transport are maintained. A great increase of production would merely lead to universal congestion and waste. As rapidly as possible, railways, roads and other modern facilities of transport must be called into being. China requires 100,000 miles of railway, 1,000,000 miles of modern roads, 10 or 20 adequately equipped harbours, thousands of steamboats on her rivers and capacious barges. Great programmes of national development have been drawn up and they will undoubtedly be vigorously taken in hand with the return of peace and order. The modern-



isation of China will give full employment to the industries of the world for decades. Such modernisation will make China a real Great Power which can challenge comparison with any of the existing Powers.

If peace and order should return to China, the Chinese may well become the leading nation in the world and regain that great position which they held for centuries and centuries. Military power and economic power go hand in hand. A modernised China would not only be one of the most important economic factors in the world, but would at the same time be one of the leading political factors. A modernised China would become one of the leading nations in wealth and in potential power. The Chinese would scarcely abuse their strength for the idea of conquest, and war is abhorrent to them. At the same time they need not fear foreign invasion, although their wealth and their peacefulness might fill other nations with envy and arouse in them the desire for plunder. A glance at the map shows that China is a gigantic natural fortress. The country is surrounded on all sides by the most formidable natural obstacles, by huge mountain chains, vast deserts and the sea. There are a few points where invasion is possible. These points can easily be defended if that great country is adequately supplied with modern means of transport. Whether China will continue a prey of disorder and of civil war, or whether she will triumphantly emerge from her ordeal and enter upon a career of progress which will leave Japan far behind, should be determined very soon. Apparently a crisis is approaching in China's affairs. Very likely the great qualities of the race will save the country and lead to its modernisation, and it behoves England and the British Empire to see that they are regarded as China's well-wishers and friends if, and when, that development comes

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## Science and the Tropics

By **SIR DANIEL MORRIS, K.C.M.G., D.C.L., D.Sc., LL.D.**

*Late Imperial Commissioner of Agriculture in the West Indies.*

**I**N the Year Book for 1922 there appeared an article on "What we owe to the Tropics," containing a review of the numerous and valuable productions obtained from the tropics, which contribute so materially to the welfare and prosperity of the Empire. These productions consist of indispensable articles in daily consumption as well as raw materials vitally needed for our manufacturing industries. As the areas of our tropical territories have nearly doubled within the last thirty years, there has been a corresponding growth in the commerce of the Empire, showing that our Dominions and Colonies are capable of producing

what the great markets of the world require. A marked feature in the recent development of the resources of the Empire has been the more extended application of science to industries. In nearly all industries there is ample scope for research and on this depends the maintenance of our position in the industrial struggle for existence.

It is claimed that there is no training so valuable for industrial life as that of being brought into contact with those who are engaged in scientific research. That this is being gradually recognised by the Government, and by those closely interested in the progress of agricultural and other industries, is shown by the energetic and purposeful action now being taken in many directions. What is further needed is the following up of the achievements of research by still wider administrative action both at home and abroad.

There is also to be borne in mind the need for taking measures for maintaining the health conditions for natives and Europeans in the tropics, and in enabling pests to be dealt with and larger crops to be reaped and greater profits realised.

In order to show the gradual progress made in the improvement of agricultural industries in the tropics, it is necessary to go back a few years and trace the several stages in that direction.

One of the most important steps leading to the improvement of agriculture on scientific lines in the tropics was the establishment by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain of an Imperial Department of Agriculture in the West Indies. A grant at the rate of £17,400 per annum was voted by Parliament in 1898, and an Imperial Commissioner of Agriculture was appointed with headquarters and a competent staff and laboratories at Barbados, a central point easily in touch with the other Colonies. The duties entrusted to the Department was the general improvement of the sugar industry, hitherto the chief source of the prosperity of several of the West Indian Colonies, and the encouragement of a system of subsidiary industries in localities where sugar could not be grown or the conditions were more favourable for the production of cacao, coffee, bananas, limes, cotton, rubber, sisal hemp, rice, nutmegs, pineapples, and other tropical crops. A prominent position was given to teaching the principles of elementary science and agriculture in the primary and secondary schools, and three agricultural training schools were established at St. Vincent, St. Lucia and Dominica.

As the result of improvements effected in raising new varieties of sugar canes to replace those of poor quality, or liable to disease, nearly all the varieties now cultivated in the West Indies are new canes yielding, over large areas, mean results ranging from 15 to 30 per cent. higher than the old varieties. In two small islands the new canes gave an approximate increased value at the rate of £20,000 per annum.

Another result of research work carried on by the Department was the discovery of the life history of the moth-borer, which for more than a hundred years had been regarded as one of the most destructive and widely distributed enemies of the sugar cane. Mr. Maxwell Lefroy, the entomologist on the staff of the Imperial Department of Agriculture, was able to place within reach of the planters a simple and effective means of controlling the attacks of the moth-borer. A further striking service rendered by the Imperial Department was the introduction into the West Indies of a pure strain of seed of Sea-Island Cotton, remarkable for its strength and fineness. This laid the foundation of an important new industry. The crops produced during the first year (1904) were of the export value of £32,000. In 1905 they had increased to £63,000, while during the period from 1904 to 1918 the total value of Sea-Island Cotton exported from the West Indies reached nearly two million sterling. Practically now the fine-spinning cotton factories in Lancashire are almost entirely dependent on the supplies of Sea-Island Cotton from the West Indies.

The appreciation of science in assisting agricultural industries is demonstrated by the fact that much larger sums are now annually voted for the maintenance of scientific and agricultural departments in the West Indies. In the four principal colonies, viz., Jamaica, British Guiana, Trinidad and Barbados, the total expenditure on agricultural services in the year 1898 amounted to £14,000. For the year 1912 the colonial legislatures voted a total of £44,331 or more than three times the amount provided in 1898. Further, in Trinidad and British Guiana the planters agreed to submit to a voluntary tax on their exports for the purpose of employing additional experts to deal effectively with insect and fungoid pests. At the end of ten years of strenuous effort on the part of members of the scientific staffs in the West Indies, it was noticeable, owing to the expansion and improvement of old industries and the introduction of new industries, the general conditions were greatly improved. This may be illustrated by the fact that the public revenue of the Colonies had increased from £2,546,724 to £3,914,434, while the total trade had increased from £16,270,474 to £26,949,096. There was thus an increase of 65 per cent. in the total revenue and of 60.5 per cent. in the total trade. In reviewing the situation in the West Indies, as the result of the activities of the Imperial Department of Agriculture and those associated with it, Mr. Askwith, then Prime Minister, said "the work of the Department was universally and gratefully acknowledged by the planters to be largely responsible for the improved state of affairs in all branches of agriculture, and he believed—and he spoke with some experience—it would be difficult to find a case in which any analogous experiment made by the Home Government had attained such speedy and satisfactory results."

Further, Lord Islington, who was a member of the Canadian and West Indian Royal Commission in 1909-10, expressed himself as follows: "I was deeply impressed by the value of the work done by the Imperial Department of Agriculture and by the greatness of the possibilities which still lay before it; the revival of the cotton industry and consequent restoration of comparative prosperity to some of the smaller islands; experiments with the sugar cane; the discovery and destruction of insect pests—these were in themselves great achievements. In my opinion, however, an even more valuable work has been done in diminishing the prejudices of agriculturists and inducing them to try new methods, and in inculcating the value of science and co-operation."

An indirect result arising from the success of the Imperial Department of Agriculture in the West Indies, the first effort of its kind in the tropics, was the formation of a series of similar agricultural departments in other portions of the Empire. The first of these was the Imperial Department of Agriculture in India with headquarters at Pusa. This was followed by the formation of a Department of Science in British Guiana. Other Agricultural Departments in the tropics have been established in the Federated Malay States, British East Africa, the Gold Coast, Southern Nigeria, Ceylon, Mauritius, Jamaica, Trinidad and Barbados.

Further, officers of University standing in science, trained in the West Indies, have served in the Imperial Department of Agriculture in India, two in the Agricultural Department in the Malay States, one each in British East Africa, the Gold Coast, Lagos, Mauritius and Fiji, and three in the Provincial Agricultural Departments in India.

A further development that may be regarded as a result of the activities of the Imperial Department in the West Indies is the establishment of a University College for the study of tropical agriculture at Trinidad. This is the pioneer college in the British tropics and the first of the kind in the British Empire. "Hitherto," as stated in *The Times*, "despite all its interests and commitments in tropical areas, the Empire has had no centre actually situated in the tropics, where tropical agriculture and its problems can be studied under natural conditions. Students of tropical agriculture have been forced hitherto to make the best of a makeshift and to be satisfied with such knowledge, preparation and training as can be obtained from educational institutions existing mainly in temperate climates. This is a deficiency in Imperial organisations which deserves to be made good, and the establishment of the West Indian Agricultural College, opened at Trinidad in October last, promises to confer great benefits on agricultural enterprise throughout the Empire." In the House of Commons recently Mr. Ormsby Gore, Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies, announced that the College at Trinidad was to be known in future

as the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, so that it might become the centre of a great Imperial movement on the broadest lines.

It is hoped that officers trained in British colleges and universities who have been selected to fill agricultural posts in the Colonies will either be sent to Trinidad to take a special course of study before taking up their appointments or will be given facilities for carrying out special research at the College during one of their periods of leave. If the College can be used for the further training of our Colonial agricultural officers in the manner suggested, very great benefits will accrue to agricultural enterprises throughout the Empire.

As indicating that efforts had been made in olden days to bring the elements of science to bear on local industries, it may be mentioned that the centenary of the Botanic Gardens at Trinidad in the West Indies was celebrated in 1919. Some of its treasures in plant life had been obtained from the old Botanic Gardens at St. Vincent, established in 1764. These latter had served for many years as a distributing centre for numerous economic plants that have contributed to the welfare of many portions of the West Indies. In the case of Jamaica, most of the staple products of the island, to the annual value of £4,000,000 sterling, have been derived from plants introduced from other portions of the tropics. In 1772 Dr. Young, the Director of the St. Vincent Gardens, received the gold medal of the Royal Society of Arts "in recognition of the flourishing state of the gardens." Bread-fruit trees to the number of 300 were brought by Captain Bligh from Tahiti, and, later, nutmeg, cinnamon and clove were introduced; also some of the mango and cinnamon plants which Lord Rodney took from a French man-of-war were landed at St. Vincent.

Further, the centenary of the Royal Botanic Gardens at Ceylon was celebrated in March, 1922, when suitable references were made to the long and interesting record of botanic work carried on by successive directors and scientific visitors. As Ceylon depends so largely for its prosperity upon its agricultural resources, the value of research in agriculture is becoming widely recognised. In October last the Governor of Ceylon opened two up-to-date laboratories for entomology and mycology and the necessary quarters for the staff. It is proposed to add a chemical laboratory to complete the equipment of a Central Experiment Station. This, with the new laboratories attached to the Botanic Gardens at Singapore, will form two important links in the chain of stations where agricultural problems are investigated under the most favourable conditions in the Eastern tropics.

### **Royal Gardens at Kew.**

In discussing the progress of agricultural efforts in the tropics it is impossible to overlook the valuable service rendered for more than a hundred years by the Royal Gardens at Kew. As long



ago as 1791, the cultivation of the bread-fruit tree was introduced, with the aid of Kew, from the South Sea Islands to feed the black people in the West Indies. About the same period, cases and seeds of useful economic plants were sent out by Sir Joseph Banks, after his return from a voyage round the world, to the infant colony of New South Wales. While in unpaid charge of Kew, Sir Joseph made it his deliberate policy to utilise Kew as a depot for the interchange of seeds and plants into all the Colonies, "which must prove," he said, "of great advantage to the commerce of these kingdoms." In 1860, with the assistance of Sir Clements Markham, Kew successfully introduced Cinchona (or quinine-yielding) trees from Peru to India and Ceylon, where eventually large plantations were established, with the result that the price of quinine, an essential to life in the tropics, fell from a guinea an ounce to such an extent that a dose of five grains could be bought at any post office in India for one farthing. In 1875, with the aid of Sir H. A. Wickham, the Kew authorities arranged with the India office to introduce the Para rubber tree, growing wild in the Amazon Valley, for cultivation in the East Indies. The exports of Para rubber from India, the Malay States and Ceylon have now reached enormous proportions.

Through the distinguished services of Sir William Hooker, Sir Joseph Hooker, and Sir William Thiselton-Dyer, an important function of Kew has been the advancement of knowledge by means of a series of publications bearing on the floras of various parts of the tropics, as well as bringing together the unique collections of Indian and Colonial products so easily accessible to scientific and commercial men in its extensive Museums. Kew has also served as a valuable training institution for gardeners, to fit them for appointments in Colonial and Indian botanic gardens. Several hundreds of Kew men scattered over the Empire are doing excellent work. In discussing the value of the training of young gardeners at Kew, a recent writer states "they often come to play an important part in the life of the Colony or Protectorate to which they are appointed, and one is not surprised to learn that in some instances the services they have rendered in developing the local resources have led them to public positions of wider influence and greater responsibility."

Speaking at the House of Commons on August 2nd, 1898, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain said: "I do not think it is too much to say that at the present time there are several of our important Colonies which owe whatever prosperity they possess to the knowledge and experience of, and the assistance given by, the authorities at Kew Gardens."

Another agency that is designed to meet the requirements of our tropical Colonies and Protectorates, and provide additional scientific assistance beyond the domain of Kew, is the Imperial Institute at South Kensington. This is designed to promote the

utilisation of the commercial and industrial resources of the Empire, by arranging comprehensive exhibitions of natural products, and providing for their investigation and the dissemination of information relating to raw materials from all parts of the Empire. An incident, regarded as of great economic value, is the recent discovery of the Udi coalfields in Nigeria, due to a survey organised by the Imperial Institute.

### **Wheat, Sugar, Cotton and Rubber.**

There can be no doubt that in all parts of the Empire enlightenment as to the objects, methods and conditions of scientific research is proceeding at a rapid rate. Perhaps one of the most interesting features of this progress is in connection with the application of the laws of heredity to the improvement of such highly important crops as wheat, sugar, cotton and rubber. The problems associated with these involve both scientific and economic considerations. As regards the scientific side, it is fortunate that in the beginning of the twentieth century came the re-discovery of Mendel's facts and the stimulating energy of the Genetic school which has brought us an entirely new point of view in regard to the improvement of field crops.

In this connection Lord Moulton has expressed the opinion that "thanks largely to the pure science of Mendel, we are rapidly securing the power of reorganising the existing vegetable kingdom so as to make new varieties of useful plants which will secure attacks from their enemies and will give a large return to the cultivator." He adds: "Agriculture is possibly the oldest art in the world and it has hitherto reposed mainly on experience and tradition. The day is approaching when this must be changed, and the teaching of experimental science must be listened to, even in agriculture, if we are to bear the burden of supporting the enormous and ever-growing populations of to-day. It requires no elaborate plant to enable the farmer to use a pure pedigree wheat in his fields and to guide his choice of manures by sound principles. That he is rationally conservative in his methods is a necessity of his art, but when better methods are brought to his knowledge, which are supported by practical demonstration, the force of which he of all men is best capable of appreciating, I have little fear that he will not show himself willing to learn."

### **Wheat.**

In the case of wheat, Professor Biffen, at the Plant Breeding Institute at Cambridge, has raised on Mendelian lines new varieties that are not only capable of resisting disease but of yielding exceptionally large crops per acre. Further he has shown that the characteristics distinguishing the numerous wheats can be traced, and the building up of a fresh combination of these characters was possible on practical lines. As the losses caused

by disease were so serious, sometimes running to millions of quarters annually, Professor Biffen devoted special attention to the possibility of breeding rust-resisting varieties. He found that the power of resisting the attacks of yellow rust, for instance, was an inheritable character. By crossing "Gurka," a Russian disease-resisting wheat, with Square Head's Master, one of the most widely cultivated wheats in this country, Professor Biffen eventually produced "Little Joss," which, after trials extending over a period of several years, is said to yield four bushels per acre more than any other variety. Further, it possesses distinct disease-resisting qualities.

Another of Professor Biffen's new wheats is "Yeoman." This was raised in order to produce what are known as strong wheats. These are in great demand in this country, as they produce a flour which is much superior for baking purposes to the flour of English wheat. In pre-war days Canadian strong wheats commanded in the market 5s. more per quarter than the best English wheat. "Yeoman" not only possesses the superior quality of Canadian wheat, but combines with it the high-yielding character of certain English wheats.

A well authenticated report, supplemented with full details of the value of "Yeoman" as a field crop, was lately published. It was cultivated under normal conditions, but without artificial manure, on three fields on a large farm near Wye, Kent. The cropped area was a little over twenty-seven acres. The total yield was 2,072 bushels, or an average of about twenty-seven bushels per acre. One field, previously under beet, comprising three acres, two rods and eight poles, yielded 340 bushels, or an average of eighty-six bushels per acre. These results may be compared with thirty-two bushels, the average yield of wheat in this country.

Further, in another variety known as "Fenman," Professor Biffen has produced a wheat with a short, stiff straw for the Fen country. This is able to withstand the usual tendency of the ordinary sorts to grow tall and be beaten down and injured in rainy seasons. A most desirable improvement in wheat growing in this country is to obtain a spring wheat, combining early maturity with a yield approaching that of winter wheat. There is likely to be a difficulty in securing these most desirable results, but what Professor Biffen has already achieved in dealing with qualitative and quantitative characters offers a fair promise of success. The establishment of a National Institute of Agricultural Botany at Cambridge, for the further development of plant breeding and the wide distribution of pure seed, lately visited by His Majesty the King, may be regarded as essential to the welfare and safety of the nation.

Important work has been carried on in India by Mr. Albert Howard, C.I.E., followed closely on the methods found so successful

at Cambridge. In reviewing the gain to Indian wheat growers, the Director of the Agricultural Research Institute has recently stated that in view of the favour with which the new wheats have been received and the cordial co-operation of provincial organisations, "it is a modest estimate to assume that in the course of a very few years the area under the new wheats in India will reach five million acres. This means an increase in the near future in the value of the agricultural produce of India, in one crop only, of 75 lakhs of rupees or five million sterling." Another crop that has received attention is indigo. In regard to this, a new method of growing the seed has been worked out, and the cause of the destructive wilt-disease has been traced to the destruction of the fine roots and nodules during the heavy monsoon rains. The remedy in this case is the selection of surface-rooted plants which are now in course being generally grown.

Considerable progress has also been made with rice, the chief cereal food of the people of India. Of this eighty million acres are cultivated. A variety known as "Indrasail" is being rapidly propagated. The yields of this, lately, were 30 per cent. over the ordinary kinds, and two hundred tons of pure rice seed were distributed in Bengal, which contains one of the great rice-producing tracts of the world.

### Sugar.

Great importance is attached to the improvement of the sugar-cane, as the prosperity not only of India but of many of our overseas possessions depends upon it. Further, the requirements of this country approach something like two million tons per annum. The sugar-cane, although its origin is unknown, has been cultivated in tropical and sub-tropical countries from remote ages. Up to a recent date, its propagation was purely vegetative, as it was supposed to have lost the power of producing mature seed.

Sugar-cane seedlings were first observed at Barbados in 1858, but it was only in 1888 that Bovell and Harrison were in a position to utilise the discovery and obtain thousands of self-sown seedlings for experiment purposes. Similar seedlings were also available in Java about the same time. As about this period the standard canes in sugar-growing countries were showing signs of losing vigour and being severely attacked by disease, the discovery of seedlings was a fortunate circumstance. In fact, in some cases it may be regarded as having probably saved the industry.

In British Guiana it is reported that in recent crops seedling canes occupied 83 per cent. of the total areas under canes. Similar results have been obtained at Barbados, where Bovell has continued, since 1888, in raising canes of great merit. Also in the Leeward Islands, and more or less in Trinidad and Jamaica. The best of the West Indian seedlings have also been widely distributed to other countries.

It is admitted that much more still remains to be done, but there is a reasonable hope that a race of superior sugar-cane seedlings will be produced that will displace the inferior local varieties still under cultivation.

### Cotton.

In recent years the subject of securing regular supplies of cotton to meet the requirements of Great Britain has received deep and earnest attention. The manufacture of cotton is second only to agriculture in industrial importance in this country, and one-third of the total exports of British manufactures consist of cotton goods. In other words out of £411,000,000, the total of British manufactures exported in 1913, £125,000,000 consisted of cotton yarns or goods. Unfortunately, every pound of raw cotton required in this country is obtained from tropical and sub-tropical areas thousands of miles away across the seas. The larger portion of the cotton supplies have been obtained from the United States of America, and according to Mr. G. B. Hurst, M.P., the shipments from the States have come down from fourteen million bales in 1913 to under ten millions in 1922. Further, the price of American cotton has meanwhile risen more than 150 per cent. Contemporaneously the yield of fine cotton grown in Egypt has shrunk and also the yield per acre.\*

The future possibilities in regard to American cotton are regarded as so doubtful that the Lancashire cotton spinners, employing directly and indirectly a population of many millions, are taking active steps to secure new sources of supply in order to redeem the shrinkage and precariousness of the old.

The British Cotton Growing Association, which began its operations in 1902, and was warmly supported by Sir Alfred Jones and others, has taken a leading part in this direction, and already sound progress has been made under its auspices in the Sudan, Uganda, Nigeria, Nyasaland, Queensland and the British West Indies. It is estimated that about 4,000,000 bales of cotton may be exported from East and West Africa, South Africa and Australia in the near future. It would appear that one of the most promising cotton-growing areas in tropical Africa is Nigeria, and especially the northern portion of it. Nigeria is nearly as large as England, France and Italy combined, or one-third the size of India, and it contains an active and capable native population numbering 18,000,000—larger than the total of all our other tropical African dependencies.

In 1919 a new organisation, known as the Empire Cotton Growing Corporation was incorporated by Royal Charter. The Government, in view of the great importance of safeguarding the future of the valuable cotton industry in this country, granted the Corporation a sum of nearly one million sterling, conditional

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\* "Contemporary Review," September, 1923



upon the acceptance by the Lancashire cotton spinners of a universal levy of sixpence on the sale of every bale (500 lbs.) of raw cotton on arrival in this country. This voluntary levy is expected to bring in about £100,000 a year. The money is proposed to be devoted to training young men under a system of research studentships bearing on plant genetics and physiology, entomology and physics, so that they may be qualified to take an active part in the work of inquiry and administration in connection with cotton-growing in all parts of the tropics. It is also proposed to grant studentships to increase the number of men qualified to act as agricultural instructors to native cotton cultivators in regard to the varying local conditions, and assist in solving any difficulties that may arise from time to time.

In addition, special grants have been made by the Corporation to universities and colleges to extend the study of scientific subjects of importance to cotton-growing in all parts of the Empire. Grants at the rate of £1,000 per annum for five years have been awarded as follows:—(1) The Botanical Department of the Imperial College of Science and Technology, for Plant Physiology and Pathology; (2) The Genetics Department of the University of Cambridge, for Genetics; (3) The Soil Physics Department of the Rothamstead Experimental Station, for Soil Physics; and (4) The Imperial College of Science and Technology and Manchester University, for Mycology and Entomology.

These universities and institutions have promised, in exchange, to appoint one or more specialists in the above-named subjects on whom the botanists or agriculturists working in cotton-growing countries may call for assistance in the elucidation of local problems. Further, it is intended that special investigations shall be carried out in the subjects mentioned above which are known to be, or likely to be, of general importance to cultivators of cotton. Also the institutions mentioned are asked to take research scholars or experts on Study Leave, without charge. *The Times* recently remarked that not a moment too soon has the problem of extending the area of cotton cultivation in the Empire been seriously attacked. "The grievous plight of Lancashire's staple trade, and the pressure of unemployment resulting from the state of the industry, are largely the result of the neglect of this matter in past years."

India is the second largest producer of cotton and has about 20 million acres under cultivation, yielding 5 million bales per annum. The recommendations of a Central Cotton Committee appointed to examine the whole position of cotton-growing and marketing have recently been approved by the Government of India, and an Act passed authorising the levy of a cess of 4d. per bale on cotton exported and consumed in mills, the money so raised to be used to create a central fund for cotton research. It is estimated that this cess will produce about £45,000 per annum.

According to *Nature*, this is one-and-a-half times the total amount originally set aside for agricultural research in Great Britain by the Development Commission. The greater portion of the sum raised in India will be devoted to the creation of a Cotton Breeding and Seed Distribution Institute, to be established possibly at Indore in Central India. It is probable that the central breeding station will be placed under the direction of Mr. Albert Howard, and his accomplished wife, whose successful work at Pusa in wheat-breeding has already been mentioned.

### Rubber.

Owing to the prevalence of fungoid and other diseases in the extensive rubber plantations in the Malay States, Ceylon and India, whose exports of commercial rubber have reached a total annual value of nearly £35,000,000, research work is being carefully organised.

As regards planting new areas, or the improvement of existing plantations, a selection of seed from the best yielding trees is being carried out. That this is a practical proposition is shown in the case of *Cinchona* trees, yielding quinine, in Java. It is established that, by a careful selection of seed, the yield of quinine alkaloids in the bark has been nearly doubled in recent years.

Another point is that the yield of rubber from different trees of *Hevea*, grown under similar conditions in the same plantation, may vary as regards the volume of latex from 4 to 48, and in the percentage of weight of dry rubber from 1.286 to 14.164. There is, therefore, a prospect that by a careful selection of seed valuable results may be obtained. Advantage might also be taken of the quality inherent in individual rubber trees to resist disease. With this view, in Java and Ceylon the budding of rubber trees is being systematically carried on with buds from selected mother trees.

Probably the most remarkable instance on record of the successful combination of science and enterprise in the tropics is the establishment of a cacao-growing industry in the Colony of the Gold Coast, West Africa. In 1890 no cacao of any kind was produced on the Coast. Owing, however, to the foresight of a former Governor (Sir William Brandford Griffith), who sought the aid of Kew, cacao growing was started in a small way among the negro peasantry, with eventually extraordinary results. After selecting the locality for the experiments, seeds and plants were obtained through Kew, and a trained man, Mr. William Crowther, was placed in charge. Mr. Crowther was afterwards sent to the West Indies to study cacao-growing, and he returned to the Gold Coast with the results of his observations and a large supply of seeds and plants. The first exports of cacao, in 1891, amounted to a value of £4 only. So rapid was the development of the industry that ten years later the exports reached a value of £43,000. By

this time both the people and the Government had begun to realise the possibilities of the situation, and systematic steps were taken to organise, under scientific control, a staff of travelling agricultural instructors to advise and assist the cultivators in dealing with fungoid and insect pests and improve the quality of the produce. In 1911 the exports had increased nearly fourfold, and reached a total value of £1,613,000, while during the three years, 1920-22, the average annual value had reached over £7,000,000.

It should be borne in mind that this Gold Coast cacao industry, now one of the largest in the world, has been called into being and developed entirely by the agency of unskilled negro labour, and on small plots from one to five or ten acres in extent. The controlling factors were, first, the selection of suitable land for cacao growing; next, the selection and supply of seeds and plants of varieties adapted to local conditions; and, lastly, the advice and tactful assistance of trained Europeans backed by the resources of science.

The phenomenal success of the cacao industry in the Gold Coast Colony is of interest as showing the possibilities of developing cotton and other industries in tropical Africa, not only by wage labour but by a system of peasant proprietorship under European control. There are, no doubt, extensive areas suitable for cotton-growing that may be developed by such means where the local conditions admit of it.

### Improved Health in the Tropics.

Valuable services have been rendered by science in the tropics in the conquest of malaria, which has caused incalculable destruction of human life throughout the ages. Manson was of opinion that "malaria was far and away the most important of the many problems of tropical empire—that Empire upon which so much of our present and our prospective national prosperity depends."

After Leveran and Manson had made a careful study of the subject, it was the brilliant researches of Ross that eventually proved that the malaria parasite was conveyed to man by the punctures of a widely distributed mosquito known as *Anopheles*. Great efforts have been made to stamp out malaria by suppressing the breeding place of mosquitoes, by the general use of mosquito curtains and wire-netting, and particularly by preventing mosquitoes from having access to malarial persons. Quinine still remains the one specific for dealing with malaria. In the case of yellow fever, another disease due to the puncture of mosquitoes, following the careful investigations carried on by an American Commission in Cuba, we have the striking results arising from the sanitary victory attained by General Gorgias on the Isthmus of Panama.

The Panama zone used to be one of the worst endemic regions in Central America, but as the result of anti-mosquito campaigns

carried on under the direction of General Gorgias, the number of cases of yellow fever was reduced so rapidly that within five years the disease had completely disappeared from this region.

A disease which is the cause of a great annual mortality in parts of Africa is sleeping sickness. This is transmitted by a large blood-sucking fly known as the Tse-tse fly. The problem of dealing with this disease is a peculiarly difficult one. Through the agency of the Imperial Bureau of Entomology and other bodies associated with it, some of the measures for destroying the fly have been successful, but much still remains to be done to deal effectively with it.

It should be borne in mind that there is not only the heavy toll of life and health exacted by malaria and other similar diseases in the tropics, but the virtual closing of enormous tracts of productive country which would otherwise afford scope for British enterprise.

In this country there are numerous agencies affording instruction in the treatment of tropical diseases. There is the London School of Tropical Medicine, founded in 1899, which owes its origin to Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, and in connection with this tropical medicine has been admitted as an alternative subject for the M.D. of London University. There is the Incorporated Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, founded by Sir Alfred Jones, President of the Liverpool Chamber of Commerce; also the Tropical Diseases Bureau and an Advisory Medical and Sanitary Committee for Tropical Africa.

A valuable organisation for dealing with the diseases caused by insect pests has been steadily at work under the authority of the Colonial Office. This is the Imperial Bureau of Entomology, started in 1913, for encouraging and co-ordinating entomological work throughout the Empire in relation to human, animal and plant diseases. A brief outline of the work carried through by this Bureau has recently appeared in *The Times* from Sir Arthur E. Shipley. The first permanent Chairman of the honorary committee of management was the Earl of Cromer, who until the day of his death devoted himself to the activities of the organisation. Later Viscount Harcourt, shortly after he left the Colonial Office, took an active part in the work of the Bureau, and his loss was deeply felt by all concerned. Recently Earl Buxton, late Governor-General of South Africa, has accepted the chairmanship. The Committee itself was selected so that it should be widely representative of institutions where entomology is studied in this country, and the chief entomologists in each of the self-governing Dominions and the tropical Colonies are ex-officio members. The admitted successful efforts of this Imperial Bureau are largely due to the untiring assistance of the Committee and to Sir Patrick Manson, whose death has deprived the Committee of one of its distinguished members. Further, the services of a

first-class entomologist with business aptitude as director were found in Dr. G. A. K. Marshall, C.M.G. The latter has his headquarters at the Natural History Museum at South Kensington, and as a measure of the work carried through during the past year it may be mentioned that fifty-three thousand insects were submitted to the Bureau by eighty-two correspondents scattered throughout the Empire. Much of the material is returned to the collectors with valuable information, but thirteen thousand specimens were presented to the British Museum Natural History, of which 171 were types or species new to science. Some five thousand named blood-sucking insects were distributed to various institutions throughout the Empire for teaching purposes. The Bureau also issues two publications: one a quarterly "Bulletin of Entomological Research," well got up and fully illustrated, and a second publication is the "Review of Applied Entomology," brought out monthly in two series, one dealing with insects injurious to plants, the other with insects that disseminate human and animal diseases. The Bureau keeps in touch with entomologists throughout the Empire, and two years ago, under its auspices, an Imperial Entomological Conference was held in London, which brought the leading entomologists together and enabled them to exchange ideas and work cordially together. The Bureau is financed by grants provided by the Imperial Government and by the Governments of the Dominions, India and the Colonies—over forty Governments in all—and financially it is in a sound condition.

The success of the Imperial Bureau of Entomology has since led to the formation of an Imperial Bureau of Mycology, a central organisation also under the chairmanship of Earl Buxton, for the encouragement and co-ordination of work throughout the Empire on the diseases of plants caused by fungi in relation to agriculture. This latter Bureau is located at Kew, and is in charge of Dr. E. J. Butler, C.I.E., late Imperial Mycologist and Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India. A monthly journal, "The Review of Applied Mycology," is issued by the Imperial Bureau of Mycology, devoted to the study and treatment of the numerous and destructive diseases of plants caused by fungi.

In the preceding pages an attempt has been made to present some of the leading facts in connection with efforts to improve the agricultural resources of our possessions in the tropics, and at the same time recall the valuable services rendered in this direction by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, who, as a first step, took in hand the re-organisation of the conditions existing in the West Indies, our oldest colonies, by the creation of an Imperial Department of Agriculture. He also took steps to abolish the vicious system of sugar bounties, and founded the London School of Tropical Medicine, whereby the lives of hundreds of devoted men serving in tropical regions were saved. Lord Milner, also a former Colonial Secretary, fully recognised that in our tropical



possessions we had to deal with countries of immense natural wealth, capable of producing what the great markets of the world mostly required, and that it was necessary, by the application of science, to safeguard not only the health of those concerned with the administration of the Government and of the native populations but the health of everything, directly or indirectly, connected with the exportable productions of the Colonies. Mr. Winston Churchill, who succeeded Lord Milner, remarked "that every variety of climate, of race and vegetation, every combination of social, economic, political and financial problems—all were comprised within the Colonies of the British Empire." But more than anything, there is no doubt that the productions of our tropical possessions will be greatly extended and improved by the general application of plant-breeding on Mendelian lines. Already there are numerous well-equipped Research Stations, with highly trained men in charge, established in the tropics, and plant-breeding is in the forefront as a means of enlarging the productions of all tropical crops. The value of these stations is widely acknowledged and their maintenance is amply provided for. In fact, we may regard Mendelism as epoch-making in relation to the welfare and prosperity of all agricultural industries in the tropics.

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## Education in 1923

By JAMES STANLEY LITTLE.

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"The British Empire in the Nineteenth Century," etc.*

THE year has not been uneventful in matters of educational import and development, though in view of the wealth of talk and writing to be recorded, the results have been somewhat poor. Keen disappointment had been felt by many ardent educationists at the enforced abandonment, owing to financial stringency, of many of the provisions of Mr. Fisher's Education Act, and keen disappointment was also experienced by the teachers at being asked to consent to a reduction of their salaries. They, however, accepted the measure in a manner which reflects credit on their loyalty and their spirit of citizenship. But the two features of outstanding interest in connection with education during the last twelve months are readily recognisable in the Empire Education Conference of representatives of the Mother Country, Dominions and Colonies, in London, Monday, June 25th to July 6th; and the attention given to the scheme for effecting the interchange of school teachers as between Great Britain and the overseas provinces of the Empire.

**Parliamentary Debate.**

Public education has also received considerable attention in Parliament. On the 30th March Sir John Simon dealt with the attitude of public opinion and of the Board of Education toward educational progress, as illustrated by recent departmental action, which he held, in several regards, retarded rather than promoted education. He said that important parts of the Act of 1918 were in suspended operation, and that any betrayal of the ideals of the Act would constitute a grave backsliding. Education had been sacrificed to the general outcry against waste, and the Board appeared to be limiting standards and supporting retrograde proposals. He cited the action in regard to the size of classes, and the provision of free places in secondary schools for children from the primary schools, and the suspension of the awards of State-scholarships for the Universities. It was not right to make the children of the country pay for the war. The schools for the mentally and physically afflicted would be most injuriously affected by these economies; the Infant Schools were also suffering. The feeding of necessitous children must not be eliminated, since the State, in making provision for elementary education, should see that the pupils were reasonably well fed. Friction between the Board and the local educational authorities was increasing. The Board was suspected of arrogating to itself a function extraneous to it, viz., the control over local educational policy and administration. In large numbers of circulars it challenged the authority of the local bodies, and in some instances it got its way. The fact must be realised that money spent on inefficient education was waste. The youth of the country was its greatest asset, and we were failing to provide education for the nation's youth, the best source of national wealth and progress.

Mr. Ede, for the Socialists, Sir Henry Craik, for the Universities, and others took part in the debate, and Mr. Wood, the President of the Board, in reply, contended that in regard to the feeding of school children the Board's point of view differed from Sir J. Simon's, who seemed to think that the cost of so feeding them, that they should be able to profit by the education received, should be thrown on to the education rate. The Board held that it should be borne by the general rate. The bad cases cited as to the brick and mortar of certain schools were due to the fact that before the war there were many arrears of repairs to make good, and these had been further thrown into arrear by the war. Then came the difficulty of finance, but despite all difficulties the Board was encouraging the execution of repairs wherever possible and right. Women had not been differentiated from men in regard to pension and increment of salary arising from war service. A general rule had been established that only actual service with the colours should carry these benefits, which ex-

cluded all who gave national service in munition works or elsewhere. The minor economies criticised amounted in the aggregate to a very substantial sum. It was totally misleading to assume that expenditure was identical with efficiency, or economy with inefficiency. It was the duty of the Board to pursue economy, so that when times improved educational advance could be at once resumed. As to the size of classes and the number of teachers, he did not think they had the least cause for apprehension. An inquiry had established that some authorities were staffed on an extravagant scale, and others had sunk below the requisite scale. The local authorities had been encouraged to right these two evils; in the main the less qualified teachers had been displaced. The Estimates would be preceded by a White Paper, which would show that, in spite of economies, the Board had not gone back in the matter of the average number of children per teacher to where they were before the war, or even in 1917. As to the staffing of Special Schools, the Board were not alone concerned. Local authorities pleaded that they could not afford to set up further schools, so the choice lay between whether they should try to give the best possible education to a limited number of children who suffered from disabilities, or to give an education which, in the main, would not be prejudicial to a much larger number. Touching the alleged friction between the Board and the local authorities, obviously the wheels of the administrative chariot ran much less smoothly when money was tight. A considerable number of injunctions and prohibitions had been issued to the spending authorities, but in the last three months only seven circulars had been issued. The Board had not reduced what was the existing proportion of free places in secondary schools in July, 1922, if that proportion did not exceed 25 per cent. The limited amount of money must be equally divided. Compared with pre-war figures, the number of places in secondary schools on the grant had been almost doubled, and in that change the free places had almost their mathematical share.

### Interesting Commentary.

Some pertinent correspondence in *The Times* and elsewhere followed upon the passage of arms in the House. Sir Philip Magnus pointed out that the growing dissatisfaction concerning education, based partly on cost, which had increased from upwards of 19 millions in 1913-14 to over 51 millions for 1923-24, was due more to misgivings as to its efficiency. In education, as in other forms of activity, the substitution of State control, excessively imposed, for voluntary effort had proved unduly costly and disappointing in its results. Both in the interests of teachers and economies, the Act of 1918 needed amendment. The institution by the Government of two Departmental Committees to consider the substituting of block grants for percentage grants,

the nature and efficiency of our training colleges, and the means of securing suitable teachers for our schools, showed that they were alive to the trend of public opinion. The Memorandum of the Association of Education Committees states that the Board enjoys a measure of autocracy superior to that of the Crown itself, and the National Union of Teachers at their conference suggested very drastic changes in administration and control; the proposals of the Education Committee of the Science Guild also recognised the serious consequences of undue interference with private effort. In a word, Sir Philip Magnus contended that education, as admitted by the President of the Board, "was in a state of flux, and had not been spared from haphazard development." Since 1870 many important developments had taken place. In 1902 the School Boards were dissolved, but more drastic changes were now needed, of which the most urgent was a better understanding between the Board, the local education authorities, and the Governors of Schools to meet the insistent demand for a clear differentiation between the functions of the Board and those of the local bodies. He advocated finally the appointment of an entirely independent Committee, preferably to a Royal Commission, to draw up a supplemental Act to bring our educational system into closer relation with the altered social conditions, and to adjust the respective functions of local and central authorities.

Empire Day celebrations, synchronising with the discussions emerging from Mr. Wood's statement in the House, diverted the trend of comments on it and the debate into the channel of Empire Education. Professor Caldwell, writing as an overseas teacher, in the Empire Day Supplement to *The Times*, dwelt upon the references of Sir Michael Sadler and Mr. Beatty to British and Overseas Universities as factors in national and Empire development. Mr. Beatty, the McGill University Chancellor, had advocated the closer affiliation of Canadian and British Universities by the creation of scholarships in Canadian Universities for British students, which would lead to the continual interchange of British and Overseas methods of thinking upon common British traditions. He maintained that the interchange of professors and trained thinkers was just as important as the interchange of students—a matter discussed by Canadian delegates at the 1921 Oxford Congress of Universities of the British Empire. To further these ends he advocated the addition of an educational section to the October Economic Conference, at which the definite importance of university and school education being organised so that, both in elementary and secondary schools, British and Dominion ways of thinking on things that matter, should be recognised, and the Conference should be encouraged to express itself as to the practical ways and means of attaining this co-ordination of education between the metropolis and the provinces of the Empire. He pleaded, too, for a series of education conferences in connection

with the Empire Exhibition of 1924, from which the most fruitful results might be anticipated.

Dr. H. Gray strongly supported these propositions; the interchange of British teachers with Australia and New Zealand had already been made successful by more than one head of our English public schools. Appealing to his 15 years' work in securing closer touch between Great Britain and the Overseas Dominions in the industrial as well as the editorial sphere, he cordially supported the suggestions that educational sections should be attached both to the Empire Conference of October and the Empire Exhibition of 1924.

Mr. Montague J. Rendall, Head of Winchester College and Chairman of the League of the Empire, gave his unqualified support to the proposals of Sir M. Sadler, Mr. Beatty, Prof. Caldwell and Dr. Gray. The interchange of pupils in English public schools had gone farther than Dr. Gray realised; it had been growing during many years. Initiated by the League of the Empire in 1907, the L.C.C. was the first authority that opened its doors to the exchange. The Council had authorised the yearly exchange of 50 of their teachers with Overseas teachers, and at the moment 33 Educational Committees in Great Britain were directly co-operating with the League in the scheme. Over 200 Overseas teachers had been placed in the home countries during the last three years, and about 100 English teachers in the schools of the Dominions, the exact interchange not coming into effect until 1922-23. Three hundred Overseas soldier teachers spent three weeks, and at least 100 longer periods, in studying our system before returning home. The supreme importance of the movement in linking the Empire together, and its effect not only on the teachers but on the up-growing generation, was emphasised by Mr. Rendall.

#### Education Vote: Mr. Wood's Statement.

On May 31st the House of Commons went into Committee of Supply on the vote of £25,934,047 for the Board of Education. Mr. E. Wood (President), in moving the vote, said that the total burden on rates and taxes would be about 75 millions, 45 millions taxes, and 32 millions rates. Considerably less had been expended in the last two years than was expected. The abatement of 5 per cent. on salaries of teachers meant a saving of £2,400,000. This voluntary abatement was quite distinct from the compulsory contribution to pensions. He recognised the public spirit of the teachers. Had there been no abatement and no Pension Act, the average net salary of a teacher would have been £251 (1922-23) and £261 (1923-24). Instead of an advance of £10 there had been a loss of £4. The birth rate accounted for the fact that there were 231,000 fewer children in the schools than in 1913-14. Disappearance of the grants for the higher education of ex-service men meant a reduction. Of these men some had received



first class honours, and out of about 50 students, six had received fellowships at their colleges. This year none of the Estimates of local authorities would be amputated on the mere account of aggregate excess of estimates over the sum which Parliament was asked to vote.

Mr. Wood anticipated a possible revival of old administrative difficulties. He hoped by independent inquiry to discover a means not only to maintain but to strengthen religious teaching in the schools. Teachers' salaries in 1923-24 came to 70 per cent. of the whole cost. The Geddes Committee suggested a scale raising the average number of pupils per teacher from about 32 to 50. This would save £8,250,000, but would eliminate 34,000 teachers. The suggestion was rejected. The Board could not impose rigid rules on teachers as to allocating time. Within the limit of the Code, this would be elastic.

Physical instruction was of vital importance; its abandonment could not be entertained. Regarding the raised salaries of teachers, this gave them the power to increase their own knowledge—no man or woman could go as teaching others who was not always learning himself or herself. Great thanks were due to the Burnham Committees for the work they had done. He appealed to the authorities and teachers to persevere in a continuous effort to reach settlements. The cost of school medical service was 4/4 per head of children in regular attendance. The trade depression had no physical adverse effect; in fact there was an improvement in the children's condition. The demand far exceeded the accommodation for places in the special schools for the physically and mentally defective. The Board was attempting to get the same efficiency at a little less expense.

Four great reports on secondary schools had been published; the demand for secondary education was increasing sensibly. The chairman of the inquiry into the differentiation of the curriculum between boys and girls said the great difference, according to a witness, between boys and girls was that if you gave a boy too much to do he did not do it; if you gave a girl too much to do she broke down. The Board was alive to the dangers of a rigid and over-crowded curriculum under the shadow of a no less rigid examination. Encouragement and help was to be given adult education, which was a field in which this country held the lead. There were 143 three year tutorial classes at the opening of the war; now there were 200. Though aided by the Board with grants, help from the local authorities was needed.

Mr. Wood maintained that he had not been seduced by a soulless Treasury, and that he was guiltless of not caring about educational advance. Within the limitations imposed, they were advancing as quickly as possible; there was no serious set back. The policy of educational enthusiasts would involve a set back afterwards. Mr. Fisher, after passing his Education Act, encour-

tered a strong ebb tide ; he concentrated on essentials. Neither the Board nor the local authority was reactionary. They both conceived that education was best served now by pursuing reasonable economy.

The doubt as to whether we were getting value for our money would be answered in the affirmative if an impartial survey were made of the educational history of the past 25 years. Education had been the parent, to what extent he would not attempt to appraise, of those qualities of character which had made for the stability of society. Referring to the exhibition of folk songs and dances with explanations by Mr. Cecil Sharp, to whom, in this field, British education owed an almost irredeemable debt of gratitude, the President concluded by claiming that the mood of the Government was not one of smooth complacency, or of reaction masquerading as economy, but it was to apply the limited funds at its disposal to the best advantage : to keep their schools efficient ; to maintain a good standard in them ; to expand and improve them when times permitted ; and by so doing to derive the greatest measure of benefit possible out of the service on which the interests and well-being of the nation and the Empire ultimately and vitally depended.

### **The Debate.**

Mr. Morgan Jones, having declared in a speech of purely destructive criticism, that the Estimates were a gross betrayal of all the Act of 1918 held out, was followed by Mr. H. A. L. Fisher (English Universities), who gave in the main, his blessing to the Estimates. The ex-President thought the legitimate economies might be employed in medical treatment, secondary education, the financial needs of the Universities. The economies announced had been effected with a minimum of injury to the educational structure of the country. Six hundred thousand children instead of 400,000 should be in the secondary schools. He urged that the short courses for teachers should be extended, and approved the steps taken to extend the University tutorial classes. A Labour member had told him that instead of reading the masters of imagination at Ruskin College, they read nothing but Karl Marx. He trembled to think what his intellectual state would be had he, at the age of 24 or 25, been put down to a course of Marx. He certainly should not be fit to address that or any other assembly. He urged that the State scholarships, half of which had been reserved for girls, should be restored. He was glad the purchase grant for the Victoria and Albert Museum was to be increased. Eighty per cent. of visitors to Bethnal Green Museum being children, he hoped it would be made one of the best museums for juveniles in the world.

Sir S. Russell Wells (London Universities) was adverse to the training colleges, which accounted for the fact that many elementary teachers, though self-sacrificing and devoted to their work,

were of a narrower outlook than was desirable. In the training college they met nobody but other budding teachers: he would like to shut these institutions down. The only proper procedure was a system of scholarships right through. Every teacher in a primary, as well as in a secondary school, should have a University education.

Sir E. Chatfield-Clarke complained that the Board was too dictatorial and not sufficiently democratic and sympathetic. Mr. F. C. Harrison and Mr. R. C. Morrison severely criticised the special schools, which were uneconomic and did not justify themselves by results, contentions which drew vigorous protests from two Labour members, Messrs. Kirkwood and Maxton. Mrs. Wintringham pleaded that the best teachers should be employed in teaching the children, and deprecated any watering-out process. Major Cadogan urged the President to give attention to the inadequate facilities for secondary education and to the high percentage of not fully qualified teachers in the elementary schools. Mr. Greenwood maintained that there was nothing in the national situation to-day which warranted the saving of a single penny on education.

### **Imperial Education Conference.**

On the 25th June the Duke of York opened this Conference at the Board of Education, Whitehall. Representatives attended from the following Boards, Dominions and Colonies:—the Board of Education (England and Wales), the Welsh Department, the Scottish Department, Northern Ireland; Isle of Man; Jersey; Guernsey; Canada (Saskatchewan, Nova Scotia, Ontario, British Columbia); Australia (Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania); South Africa; Irish Free State; India (Bombay, Bengal, United Provinces, Punjab, Burma, Bahar and Orissa, Assam); Northern and Southern Rhodesia; Basutoland; Accra; Bahamas; Federated Malay States; Jamaica; Malta; Palestine; and Sierra Leone.

Mr. E. F. L. Wood outlined the main features to occupy the Conference, which had been convened to solve problems common to them all. The Duke of York remarked that the time at which the Conference was convened was particularly opportune. H.R.H. dwelt upon the great advantages which would result from these discussions, and from the meeting in a pleasantly informal way of men engaged in the same work but differentiated by the special conditions of the various countries they represented. He emphasised the importance of the teachers, which even transcended the injunctions of Boards of Education, since they could and did inculcate the lesson that the playing of the game was of greater moment than winning the prize, and in doing so put the honour and safety of the community before the success of the individual, thereby creating the good citizens of the future in whose hands the destiny of our Empire could be left with confidence. The Duke assured

the delegates from overseas that we in the Old Country followed their doings with interest, pride and firm faith. In proposing a vote of thanks to the Duke of York, the Duke of Devonshire said that whereas the President of the Board of Education in this country had to grapple with difficulties which had to be treated in the terms of square feet, in the Dominions they were dealing with problems measured by acres and miles.

After the transaction of formal business, Mr. A. V. Bonaparte Wyse read a paper on "The Standard of Academic Qualifications required for a Teacher's Certificate and the Means of Securing this Standard," and was followed by Dr. W. J. Viljoen (South Africa) with a paper on "The Recognition of the Teachers' Service throughout the Empire." A sub-committee was appointed to consider these topics and to report to the Conference upon them; this Committee was asked to report also upon the question of the interchange of teachers, selection of teachers, period of service, superannuation, and kindred subjects affecting the teaching staff.

June 26th. This session of the Conference was devoted to a discussion of the place of commerce, industry, agriculture and domestic science in the curriculum of schools. The Director of Education, Victoria, Mr. Frank Tate, opened a debate on the place of vocational education in primary schools. Despite the old battle still raging, there should be no real or necessary conflict between cultural (general) and vocational (utilitarian) education. The good school was a place where children were prepared for life. Australians recognised three practical educational aims: (1) To fit a boy to earn his living; (2) To use his leisure time worthily; (3) To train him in his civic duties and imbue him with the desire for community service. In Victoria agriculture was taught not for its technical value but as a cultural subject. Mr. G. A. Wathen (Punjab) said that the initiation of teaching agriculture as a cultural subject in vernacular schools was doing something to guide boys back to the land and to lessen the number of unemployed and unemployable. Mr. H. G. Bowman (Palestine) said that the Administration was full alive to preventing the boys educated in rural districts turning their faces townwards.

That the prejudice against marked vocational training in England, once strong, was softening was admitted by Mr. F. T. Howard, H.M. Inspector of the Board of Education. There had been fluctuations; vocational training for children under 14 had been abandoned generally, though under skilled teachers young children were, here and there, taught vocations, though the vocational aspect was kept subsidiary to the general training.

In Malaya the children, of whom a high percentage would have to earn their living on the land, commence practical gardening in their first year. Mr. A. Keir deposed that before they left school they had a very fair idea of husbandry.

It appears from the statement of Mr. G. M. Hofmeyr, Secretary

of Education for South Africa, that a committee appointed in the Union had explored the whole subject of agricultural education. The difference of local conditions necessitated that such subjects should be examined in Committee. Dr. Viljoen remarked that in the Union the elements of agriculture were taught through the media of nature study and school gardens. A number of specialised agricultural secondary schools had been established at carefully selected centres; the teaching combined scientific and theoretical knowledge with practical training. The University of Stellenbosch and the Transvaal University College, Pretoria, offered a four years' degree course in agriculture; and the course of training for primary school teachers included nature study in which agricultural subjects bulked largely.

Despite its importance, there was a danger in the judgment of Mr. F. R. Jamieson (Scotland) of overdoing the effort of relating all cultural training closely with the pupils' environment, since he was doubtful whether the majority of those attending the special classes were actually what are commonly designated "workers." "The Welsh Rural Lore Scheme," which had been extended to England, had, said Sir Alfred T. Davies (Wales), proved a solvent of many of their difficulties in awakening the intellectual curiosity of the child, and investing with a new interest and meaning the ordinary subjects of the curriculum, especially in a rural school.

Miss L. de Lissa, Principal of Gipsy Hill Training College, read a thoughtful and pregnantly suggestive paper on "Recent Developments in Infant Education and their Connection in the Elementary Schools," which proved to be, perhaps, the most notable contribution to the Conference from first to last. She said that where the infant schools were poor, badly staffed or ill-equipped, the same thing happened as happened to a jerry-built house. None but the most short-sighted thought it economy to neglect the infant schools. A great change was coming over the method and attitude in which educational practice in elementary schools was approached.

The education of yesterday was based on philosophy and logic, but to-day an interest in growing human beings, and investigation into their true nature and needs, were changing the whole attitude of educators. The lecturer proceeded to animadvert on the deadly effect of fixed time tables and other mechanical dead-weights on the will, judgment, initiative and imagination of children. The teacher had been forced to act in the dual capacity of policeman and creator. She had to correct the blunders of nature, and make the child something different from what those mysterious forces within it intended it to be; to hold it in silent passivity and mould it according to the plan of the authorities. Teachers, as they became better trained and more thoughtful, revolted against this soul-destroying organisation. Research had resulted



in some knowledge of the requirements of a child's physical environment, beyond which there had been established what might be called *physic hygiene*. The essayist paid handsome tribute to the magnificent life work of Dr. Maria Montessori, whose enlightened methods, sustained by imagination and scientific research, she outlined. She described the work truly as a tremendous inspiration, the effect of which was incalculably great and truthful. In 1918 the Education Act gave permission for the opening of nursery schools. For long educationists had believed infancy to be the most impressionable and valuable period of life from an educational point of view—the time when the habits of mind and body were formed, the foundations of character laid, and the attitude toward life established. Interest in work brought the only true discipline, and there was no doubt, under the system pursued in these schools, the children disciplined themselves more severely than any teacher would dream of doing. Under this system it was no longer the teacher who pursued the children, they sought her out as they would seek a friend for help and guidance. The children left alone helped one another in their work and in the common service of one another, and in the willing sacrifices they made lay true moral teaching; religion was woven into the whole of everyday life, and not reserved for the first thirty minutes of every morning and for Sundays. Miss de Lissa quoted carefully kept records to prove that these methods resulted not only in the children very rarely falling below the usual standard, but for the most part they were well above it. It was in the training of teachers for this type of work that all future developments and extension would depend. She described one college which was endeavouring to make teachers whose own individuality was being developed free from fetter, and so were not likely to thwart the spontaneity of any child or choke its life. The besetting sin of training had been to put the worship of knowledge before reverence of life.

June 27th. The session was devoted to a discussion on secondary school leaving certificates, and was opened by Mr. F. R. Jamieson (Scottish Education Department), the formula being: "What conditions should be satisfied in order to make the leaving certificate serviceable to pupils not proceeding to a University." The problem was, a boy was not going into one of the professions to which the avenue lies through the University. Yet he is going into some occupation for which a liberal education is necessary or desirable. What subjects ought the boy to study; how long ought he to study them; what standard of proficiency should he have reached on leaving school? The admission that Scottish experience (a certificate was instituted 20 years ago) went to show that the hard-headed Scotch employer, knowing that if a business is to be learnt the early years count, and despite the Scot's traditional belief in a liberal education, insisted on engaging apprentices at

so early an age, practically condemned the certificate system.

The desirability that the Universities should have important functions in relation to the courses of study in secondary schools, and to the examination of pupils, was emphasised by Mr. Frank Tate. It was also highly desirable that the school authorities and the teaching body should be associated with the University in these matters, said Mr. Tate, who entered minutely into the system obtaining in Victoria, where secondary schools now employ only qualified teachers, and as the standard had been kept high, the schools could now be trusted to take part in the award of certificates, even to their own pupils.

The progress that had been made in the organisation and co-ordination of the examination system in England and Wales during the last ten years was sketched by Dr. Norwood, head-master of Marlborough College.

Dr. Viljoen said that in nothing educational was the change so marked as in the field of secondary education. From 1873 to 1918, when it became defunct, the old University of the Cape of Good Hope dominated through its school examinations. The Joint Matriculation Board, on which the Departments of Education, the secondary schools and University institutions were represented, was now charged with matriculation examination for the whole Union. The departments of the Provinces conducted their own secondary school examinations.

Mr. Cookson, Secretary, Secondary Schools Association, said that some of the Universities had voluntary organisations for the examination of secondary schools, and their experience was what largely guided present examination schemes. The certificates accepted for matriculation purposes by any given University examining body were now accepted by all Universities and many professional and other societies in lieu of their own preliminary examination.

In Ontario but one system of examinations obtains, conducted by boards appointed by the Department of Education and the University of the Province. Each University and professional college prescribed, said Dr. F. W. Merchant, the combination of subjects required for entrance to its courses.

Dr. H. Murray (Nova Scotia) read a paper contributed by Dr. A. H. McKay, who said that the tendency in all Universities was to exempt the holders of leaving certificates given by accredited central educational authorities from their matriculation examinations. Dr. McKay dealt with the precautions and limitations which should be associated with any extension of this sensible practice.

The essential thing was, said Dr. George Macdonald, that the Universities should be satisfied that the Central Board was genuinely in earnest in its desire to maintain a high standard within its own area, for the majority of the candidates who sat for the

matriculation examinations of the University of London did so to secure a certificate to the soundness of their general education to serve them in seeking commercial and other situations. Dr. Macdonald thought, with exceptions, that the value for the Dominions and India of external examinations conducted by examining bodies in Britain was apt to be overrated.

Sir R. Baden-Powell spoke on the Boy Scout and Girl Guide Movement, and detailed some of his impressions derived from his recent visit to Canada, where he attended the great conference at Toronto of the National Council for Education. Education on traditional lines was not what was wanted for life or for new nations building themselves under conditions differing from ours. Here, greatly improved in scholarship, education did not meet the social needs of to-day or to-morrow. Crime, vice, poverty, disease, irreligion, misery, class and international warfare were man-made evils and by man curable. The solution lay mainly in the development of character in the rising generation of citizens. Sir Robert said that the aim of the Scout Movement was to turn out healthy, happy, useful citizens; the four main avenues of its training were towards character, health, handicraft, and service for others. It had had only 15 years of life, five years of which were handicapped by the war, but it had an active membership of two million boys and girls and was growing sensibly. It applied with equal force to all classes of children, from Eton to the East End, no distinctions of any kind being made. Every country had adopted it. The Chief Scout, having given a succinct and comprehensive account of the objects, activities and progress of the movement, referred to the question propounded at Toronto: "Can not humane and Christian principles of sacrifice and unselfishness of service be enthroned in the schools of the nation?" The successful experiment in the Scout and Guide movement proved that they could. If education took this line in its aim it would not only develop a material boon to the world, but would be bringing into our everyday work the practice not only of goodwill, but of God's will on earth and consequent peace among men.

June 28th. This session was devoted exclusively to a discussion, opened by Dr. F. W. Merchant, Chief Director of Education for Ontario, on the provision and organisation of schools in rural and sparsely populated districts, their administration, support, and courses of study. Explaining the system of instruction in rural schools in his Province, and the difficulties occasioned by the smallness of the community, this is being met by bringing children to central boarding institutions. Continuation schools in Ontario are whole-time schools (2 years). In Canada the Adolescent Compulsory Act prolonged the age of school attendance to 16.

Speaking for Scotland, Mr. F. R. Jamieson brought out the fact that the difficulties of providing education for very scattered

populations was almost as insistent at home, and had scarcely been solved so successfully as overseas.

The Director of Education for South Australia, Mr. W. T. McCoy, said the aim of his government was to provide elementary education between the ages of 6 and 14. A school existed wherever not fewer than six children could be collected. Some children were taught through the post. All children might proceed to the schools of the larger country towns at the age of 13 or 14 years. Every child was reached by one system or the other provided.

A stimulus making them realise agriculture as an intellectual pursuit, and not direct technical education, was the ideal of Sir Daniel Hall, Chief Expert Adviser to the Ministry of Education. This ideal, he said, was realised in Scandinavian countries.

The Conference delegates visited the Bergman Osterberg Physical Training College, Dartford.\*

The part played by the University of Agriculture was outlined by Sir Daniel Hall, and the courses held at various agricultural colleges to teach the principles underlying the growth and development of the plant and the animal. All residential farm institutes had well-equipped farms and other equipment for instruction attached to them. These were for students who came from, and intended to go back to, farms. There were some 12 University departments of agriculture and agricultural colleges in England and Wales. The Ministry desired to see college courses framed more to suit the would-be farmer than the official.

The wisdom of the cry "Back to the Land" was indubitable, but, said Mr. Hofmeyr (South Africa), it was wiser to attempt to keep the county population on the land by improving rural conditions. Means to this end were revealed in the Consolidated County School.

#### **Stages of a Course of General Education.**

This discussion was opened by Mr. Frank Tate (Victoria). The State system in Victoria is divided into primary, secondary and higher education, the first being completed at the age of 12 years, after this special supplementary courses are provided and high school pupils enter on a course of 6 years. The results are good. There are three different types of central schools, viz., the Junior Technical School, the School of Household-Art for girls, and a school in the metropolis to relieve pressure on high school accommodation.

The system of school organisation in Cape Province was set forth by Dr. Viljoen. The study of the second language begins

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\*In regard to the provision of schools for sparsely populated settlements, it is regrettable that no spokesman was heard on behalf of the Colonial and Continental Church Society. The far west of Canada is being peopled by a very mixed, and almost heathen in many cases, population, and this Society and the Fellowship of the Maple Leaf are accomplishing marvels in providing schools for the settlers.—J.S.L.

at the age of 8, so pupils arrive at the secondary school stage with a good working knowledge thereof. There are about 200 institutions providing secondary education, while 100 provide the full course, culminating in the matriculation examination or its equivalent. The coloured population was rapidly ascending the educational ladder

#### **Health in the Schools.**

July 2nd. The Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Health and Board of Education, Sir George Newman, addressed the Conference, on "The Scope of Medical Service and Physical Training," outlining the function of the School Medical Service, established by the Act of 1907, as an integral part of the Public Health Service of the country. The child was considered as its basis; the system was not yet complete, but two million children came within its survey annually.

Mr. Keir, speaking for Malaya, said that the inspection of school children in that province was carried out in English and Malay vernacular schools by officers of the Health and Medical Departments.

Speaking for Scotland, Mr. McKechnie pleaded for infinite tact in dealing with the painful and complicated problem of special school provision for the mentally defective. Backward children numbered some 10 per cent. of the school population, and their special treatment was a clamant need of school organisation. The backward class was the best clearing house for many types of educational misfits. The curriculum should be broadly cultural and practical, but not purely vocational.

The responsibility for the education of the deaf and dumb in Ontario, said Dr. Merchant, was assumed by the Province; instruction was given in special residential schools established about 50 years ago. Special classes for very backward children were being rapidly provided, and preparations were being made for a farm colony school.

#### **Inspection and Examination.**

This discussion was opened by Mr. J. C. Smith, of the Scottish Education Department. For 25 years after 1872 the standard organisation prevailed. This was displaced in 1898 by a single comprehensive examination (the merit certificate examination). In 1901 exemption by examination was abolished, thereby raising the compulsory age for most children by a year. The principle of taking the teachers' opinion into account was officially recognised in the conduct of this in the examination for the intermediate certificate and for the leaving certificate. Inspection alone could show that the conditions of successful instruction were there, but to be assured of results examinations were necessary.

It would appear from Mr. McCoy's address that the problem



of inspection in Australia differed from the problem in the home country. In Britain the local education authority appointed, paid and dismissed the teacher, and another authority judged of the value of work performed. In South Australia these functions are discharged by the inspectors of the Education Department.

Dr. Viljoen introduced the consideration of "The Bi-lingual Problem and problems arising out of the use, as a medium of instruction, of a language which is not the home language of the people." He said that the Act of Union provided for full equality of the two official languages, English and Dutch, both as the media and subject of instruction, and he explained in detail the procedure governing the practical application of this ordinance. In no case, he thought, the children should study the two languages simultaneously.

Speaking for India, Mr. J. R. Frith, said that the multi-lingual conditions—147 languages (circa)—of that land was a most unpleasant fact. Not without a touch of acid humour he remarked that facts were facts: statesmen and politicians came first, nothing could alter that; but the educationist must temper and not re-inforce prejudices which might be harmful to the intellectual development of his people.

Most pertinent remarks, crossing the t's and putting the dots on the i's of Mr. Frith's veiled criticism, were made by Prof. G. R. J. Ross (India), who clearly thought that the time had come to recognise and act on the fact that their mother tongue was quite unfitted to be a medium of cultural instruction in the case of millions of children of the Empire.

Mr. H. G. Bowman (Palestine) carried the case one stage further. After referring to the particular difficulties in regard to Palestine, he boldly declared that for advanced scientific study English was probably the most suitable medium in the Oriental countries of the Empire.

### Local and Central Control.

July 4th. This session was devoted to questions of administration. The subject of "The Relations of Local to Central Control" was mooted by Dr. Merchant (Ontario), who outlined the agencies for such control in his school system, noted the functions of each; in many ways the two authorities share responsibilities. The inspector functions in many vital matters.

Dr. Viljoen (S. Africa) gave a similar sketch in regard to the Union. Missionaries chiefly managed native and coloured schools.

Mr. W. T. McCoy, Director of Education for South Australia, deplored the lack of any sort of authoritative publication giving reliable and handy information as to the educational progress of the various Dominions and States. He suggested that a Bureau of Education should be established, one of whose functions should be to collect all such information throughout the Empire (facts and statistics), and compile and publish an annual manual.

Lord Onslow was struck by the comparative simplicity of the educational system existing in the Dominions when he contemplated the complexity of the local government system in this country. There were about 318 authorities for elementary education: the L.C.C. and 61 other county councils, 82 county borough councils, 44 urban district councils, and the Isles of Sicily Council. These for elementary education. For higher education there were the L.C.C., 61 county and 82 county borough councils,

July 5th. At the instance of Mr. F. Tate, a resolution strongly advocating the formation of a central committee in London to explore, in concert with the heads of the cinema industry, the educational possibilities of the cinema, was adopted unanimously. Mr. Tate dwelt upon the supreme importance of the cinema to educationists. It was a potent agent in disseminating knowledge easily. It was not good, because of the vulgarity of the language, its over-emotionalism and lack of reticence, that the American film should be ascendant in Britain and Greater Britain. Educational films must be prepared by expert teachers. The film was not a suitable medium for dealing with literature.

Lord Gorell presided at an educational film demonstration at the Central Hall, Westminster, and in the evening, Mr. F. Norman-Wright, chairman of the Cinema Committee, gave a dinner to the delegates.\*

"The Education of the Native" was introduced by Mr. S. de J. Lenfestey (Rhodesia). Mr. Wordsworth and Mr. West (Bengal) put before the conference the special need of educating natives in India. Sir Theodore Morison (Principal, Armstrong College, Newcastle-on-Tyne), who has been responsible for the administration of a primitive district in what was German East Africa, asked the question: "How was the aboriginal African to be educated without being denationalised: without being made a bad copy of the European?" In regard to Moslem people, they could draw upon the rich tradition of Islamic culture; they had something on which to base a progressive education. The Union of South Africa was abandoning its duty in handing over the education of African tribes to missionaries.

Dr. Garfield Williams, of the Conference of Missionary Societies, pointed out that traditional ties and tribal authority were being loosened, and that it was imperative to offer some moral guidance, even if it were derived from Western civilisation and religion, to natives no longer under old tribal restraints.

\*The Royal Colonial Institute and the British Empire Union have led the way and established a precedent which might be followed profitably by the Board of Education and the local authorities in the matter of bringing home to children, by means of the cinema, the great facts—the potentialities and attractions, the possibilities for themselves, of our "Mighty Empire," which is the actual title of the kinemalogue presented by Capt. C. E. Hodges, M.A., in this connection.—J.S.L.

A most important address was given in connection with one of the meetings by Sir Charles Lucas, who appealed to the home authorities to foster to the utmost the study of the Empire.

### Official Report of Conclusions.

The official preliminary report of the proceedings frankly admits that the discussions had been descriptive rather than dialectic, and although intensely interesting and provocative of thought, had been somewhat barren of actual results, either upon matters of educational principle or administrative method. The system of the interchange of teachers was approached and referred to a Committee. On two important points, one positive and one negative, definite decisions had been arrived at. It was resolved that in the interests of the Empire it was imperative that adequate provision should be made for the effective teaching of Empire geography and history by all educational authorities. But the equally important policy of imparting vocational training in the schools was rejected.\*

### The Board's Report.

The report of the Board of Education deplored that there was no relaxation of financial stringency, and its inability to give effect to many good schemes and proposals and the congestion of arrears of important work. In regard to the Board's scheme for the higher education of ex-service men, there were more than 30,000 applicants, 26,500 actually benefitting, involving an expenditure of about £18,000,000.

The total number of schools in England, excluding Monmouthshire, regarded as eligible for grant during 1921-22 was 1,115, as compared with 1076 in the previous year.

There were 128 technical and continuation schools in England in 1921-22, attended by 10,288 full-time students and 174,667 part-time students.

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\*In regard to these two cognate subjects, attention should be drawn to a book full of pregnant thought and suggestion recently published—"Patriotism and Popular Education," by Henry Arthur Jones. The province of this article is to deal with facts, that is to say, to supply a concise record of the principal matters educational emerging during the year 1923. It is not critical or analytic, and the writer has abstained from expressing his opinions. These opinions, and nothing has transpired at the Conference or elsewhere to cause him to change or modify them, were set forth in the chapter on education in "Progress of the British Empire in the Nineteenth Century," written in 1899-1900, and later in "Education and Unrest" (1913), and are, in all essentials, exactly identical with those championed in language full of picturesque piquancy and convincing vigour by Mr. H. A. Jones. It is not surprising that the Conference turned down "vocational" or technical education, since, if adopted it would make the training of many of the existing school teachers of the Empire look foolish, while the occupation of many of them would be gone. But it is the pivot on which the whole matter of the education of the masses turns, and its rejection renders the labours of the Conference almost nugatory.—J.S.L.

During the year ending 31st March, 1922, there was a net decrease of 51 in the number of public elementary schools in England, reducing the total to 19,033. The average number of pupils was 5,409,036, compared with 5,461,959 in 1920-21.

### **The University Bill.**

The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge Bill was expounded by Mr. Wood in the House of Commons towards the end of June. He passed, in review, the stages which had led up to it. The war left the Universities in a financial condition which prompted them to send a deputation to the then Chancellor of the Exchequer and Mr. Fisher. Oxford and Cambridge were invited and agreed to submit statements. A Royal Commission was appointed, presided over by Mr. Asquith. Its report was a great repository of wise, terse and judicious conclusions, and made the task of the House considerably more simple. While the Royal Commission was sitting, the Treasury was able to give interim assistance to the extent of a grant of £30,000 a year. The Commissioners recommended that a further grant of £70,000 a year should be given to each University, with additional sums for certain special objects including women's colleges.

Mr. Asquith dealt with the fiction that the Universities were places where the children of the well-to-do were afforded a fossilised curriculum in more or less fossilised subjects in the intervals of athletic recreation. The Commissioners had given special attention to the promotion and increasing of the accessibility of the Universities to all classes of people. The new system of State scholarships would make a very considerable difference. State interference was to be deprecated, but State money must be spent legitimately. The splendid Universities of the United States were created entirely by the benefactions of rich men. In view of the very exiguous grant proposed, he hoped a new set of benefactors would come to the aid of our Universities.

The debate ranged over questions of State control, class dominance, and the refusal of full admission to women at Cambridge. The last question was made the subject of an amendment on the Report stage; the amendment was rejected by 150 votes to 124, and the Bill read a third time.

### **British Association.**

The year has been so fruitful of educational developments and crowded with activities that to deal with them all would demand twice or thrice the space allotted to this article.

The papers read and discussions on education at the British Association meetings, held in mid September at Liverpool, were of particular and vital interest. Mr. R. J. McAlpine advanced a reasoned plea for the wider recognition of the needs of a commercial community—the British community—in the curricula of our schools and universities. The subject of how to avoid national waste

by psychological tests as to the suitability of youths for their prospective vocations was introduced by Mr. A. M. Tagg. Dr. C. S. Grundy expounded the system of musical education obtaining in Lancashire. Dr. Cyril Burt's pregnant paper on "The Mental Differences between Individuals" emphasised the marked inequality of mental capacity, and the unwisdom of applying hard and fast instruction to children so divergently endowed by nature. Dr. Burt maintained that man is essentially unequal. He also grappled with the thorny subject of the delinquent child. Sir Wm. Beveridge maintained that unemployment and over-population were not necessarily connected, and insisted on the necessity, in the interests not only of the British Empire but of human progress, that checks on the increase of the fit of our race should be discouraged. Geography as a basis for a general science course was examined by Sir R. A. Gregory, who insisted on the importance of employing geography as a means of arousing in the minds of young children an active interest in the wonders of the world we live in. Dr. Welldon's criticism of teachers, as to the conscientiousness and patriotism of some, was vigorously challenged outside the Association's meetings by Sir Robert Blair and others.

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## Women's Interests.

By MARY MACLEOD MOORE.

TO the eager exponent of women's views, women's interests and women's work, it might appear that the advance of Woman is made by steps that are irritatingly short and slow. Yet a summary for the past year of the affairs affecting women particularly shows that progress is steady and sure.

In some directions fresh ground has been broken; in others a high standard has been maintained, and it is undeniable that the world at large is taking a more serious interest in matters affecting women than has ever been the case. To what extent we are indebted to the circumstance that Woman is now an important factor in the affairs of this country, owing to the power of the vote, it would be ungracious to ask. Rather let us credit this interest to an awakening public conscience; also to the fact that the more earnest and persistent among the women concerned with affairs other than the purely personal, press the claim of their sex to have equal opportunities with men to such an extent that even the most obtuse must be aware of the demands of Woman.

Despite, however, the progress that has been made, there is much still to be accomplished. Foremost might be mentioned the need of convincing Cambridge of the justice of admitting women as members of the University. Last year it was hoped



that before another twelve months had past Cambridge would have fallen into line with the other universities of the British Empire in this respect. Unhappily the authorities remain obdurate.

### **Sex Disqualification Act.**

This matter was, among other points, brought forward to prove the failure of the Sex Disqualification (Removal) Act, at a meeting in July, between the Home Secretary and a deputation representing twenty-six of the non-party women's organisations. The deputation visited the Home Secretary to call the attention of the Government to the complete failure of the Act, so far, and to ask the Government to save the Act from becoming a dead letter.

The deputation was introduced by Lady Astor (whose Bill for prohibiting young persons under the age of eighteen from consuming intoxicating liquor on licensed premises lately became law), and the speakers included Mrs. Wintringham, M.P., who dealt with the Civil Service women and the Women Police; Lady Barrett, who represented the Federation of Medical Women, numbering over eight hundred; Miss Voyce, who spoke for the women teachers; Miss Gray, Head Mistress of St. Paul's Girls' School, who spoke, on behalf of the Association of Head Mistresses of Public Secondary Schools for Girls, on the effect of the exclusion of women from Cambridge; and Viscountess Rhondda, who represented the Six Point Group, and spoke from personal knowledge of the exclusion of peeresses in their own right from the House of Lords. The five chief failures of the Act were reported to be:

- (1) It has failed to secure equality of opportunity between men and women in the Civil Service.
- (2) It has failed to prevent the dismissal of four-fifths of the Women Police by the Home Office.
- (3) It has failed to prevent marriage from acting as a bar to the public employment of women.
- (4) It has failed to secure membership of Cambridge University to women, and
- (5) It has failed to secure admission to the House of Lords for peeresses in their own right.

With regard to these failures, Lady Rhondda suggested: First, that equality of opportunity for men and women could be set right by means of Orders in Council, and the Home Office could increase the number of Women Police (a note as to the women police will be found elsewhere in this article.) Secondly, with regard to the dismissal of married women in public employment, it was suggested that the Government should set an example to the local authorities and cease to dismiss women who married. It was pointed out, also, that the Board of Education, by issuing a circular advising the dismissal of married women teachers, had

practically dictated to the local authorities as the giving of grants depended upon the favourable report of the Board of Education Inspectors. Thirdly, the grievance regarding the exclusion of women from Cambridge was one which the Government had the opportunity to remove. And fourthly, as regards the admission of peeresses to the House of Lords, the Government should pass a short and simple measure giving peeresses in their own right the same rights and privileges that peers possessed.

### **Women in the Civil Service.**

With regard to women in Government Departments, the total number on July 1st, 1923, was over 70,000:—Post Office, 48,782; Pensions Ministry, 8,754; Labour Ministry, 4,584; Inland Revenue, 3,429; Customs and Excise, 925; Admiralty, 800; War Office, 587; Health Ministry, 1,044; Board of Trade, 594; Ministry of Agriculture, 357; and Air Ministry, 299.

In August the report was published of the Government Committee, presided over by Sir Alan Garrett Anderson, to consider questions affecting the Army, Navy, Air Force and Civil Service. One section of the report gave great offence to women workers in the Civil Service, not only because of the proposal that young women should be recruited at lower rates than men, but because of the dictum that women were newcomers in office work. The Federation of Women Civil Servants replied to this with the statement that at the present time women were being retired on superannuation at the age of 60 from the General Post Office. To the suggestion of the report that there is no reason to suppose the same posts or rules that suit men will suit women, the Federation replied that blocks of work have been done interchangeably by men and women in the Civil Service. Furthermore, the women resented that marriage should mean compulsory retirement.

### **Women M.P's.**

In the early summer a third woman Member of Parliament was added to the very small number already in harness—Lady Astor and Mrs. Wintringham. This lady is Mrs. Hilton Philipson (Miss Mabel Russell), who stood for Parliament to take the place of her husband who was unseated on petition at the last election. Mrs. Philipson thus makes the third woman who succeeded her husband.

Lady Astor and Mrs. Wintringham have both done valuable work in the House of Commons. Lady Astor had the satisfaction of seeing carried through the Liquor Control Bill to protect young persons under eighteen, and she has spoken frequently in the House on subjects affecting women and children, both directly and indirectly, as well as on more general matters.

Mrs. Wintringham is interested in women's questions, education and agriculture, and she is particularly strong on Committee

work. She is credited also with having helped to place women on the Oxford and Cambridge Commissions, the women chosen being Miss Pentose for Oxford and Miss Philpots for Cambridge.

Lady Astor and Mrs. Wintringham were both instrumental in the retention of some women police under the Home Office. On the 23rd of April twenty women police were sworn in and enrolled as constables in the Metropolitan Police Force, and for the first time given power to arrest. There were originally 114 women patrols in London, but their disbandment was recommended by Sir Eric Geddes. The twenty are retained as a nucleus, and the number will most likely be extended.

In the General Election on December 6, 31 women were candidates for Parliament [See General Election, ED.] Canada has five women M.P.'s.; one in the Federal and four in Provincial Parliaments. In October, 1922, England was visited by Mrs. Arthur Rogers, M.P.P. for Manitoba, and in August, 1923, by Mrs. Mary Ellen Smith, of Vancouver, B.C., who is the first woman in the British Empire to become a Cabinet Minister. Mrs. Smith fought and won her husband's seat (after his death) and for a year was Minister of Education.

### Women Barristers and Women's Activities.

Last year women barristers were a novelty, as the first woman was then called. During 1923 the number has increased. On January 26th six women were called to the Bar at the four Inns of Court. The outstanding feature of this event was the calling of the first Indian woman to be admitted, Miss Mithian Ardeshir Tata, B.A., M.Sc., who shares with Miss Mercy Ashworth the distinction of being one of the first two women to be called by Lincoln's Inn.

All fields of activity are being invaded by women, who for the most part are proving equal to the demands made upon them. In London there are six woman chimney sweeps, twenty-four undertakers, three piano tuners, two paperhangers and one publisher. The last is Mrs. Alys Eyre Macklin, who carries on a successful publishing business in the name of A. M. Philpot & Co. In August the first woman auctioneer in England made her *debut*. The lady is Mrs. Amy Crossley, at Alderley Edge, Cheshire.

Miss Lilian Barker, who did remarkable work during the war among the girls and women at Woolwich Arsenal, was appointed early in the Spring to be Governor of the Borstal Institution for Girls, Aylesbury. The invitation was given to her by the Home Secretary, and the appointment gave much satisfaction to those who already knew of Miss Barker's admirable qualifications for such a post.

In September the first Woman's Advertising Club to be formed in this country was inaugurated. Miss Marion Jean Lyon, of "Punch," was elected President, and Miss Kathleen MacLachlan,

Secretary. One of the motives of the club is to get in touch with other advertising women in the United States and in the Dominions.

During the Winter of 1923, when Lord Burnham visited the West Indies, he was received at Nassau, Bahamas, by Miss Mary Mosley, the only woman editor of a daily paper in the whole of the British Empire. Another woman to hold an unique position is Miss Margaret Cousins, who was this year appointed special magistrate in the City of Madras, and is the first woman magistrate appointed in India.

Australia was visited during the early part of the year by Miss Gladys Pott, O.B.E., one of the three women included in the New Year Honours list. As Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Society for the Settlement of Women Overseas (in which Dame Merial Talbot, M.B.E., also does valuable work), Miss Pott has already visited Canada and South Africa in connection with migration. Councillor Miss Grace Watson, an Australian living in London, was recently elected the Australian representative of the Executive Committee of the O.S.B.W., with the official approval of the High Commissioner for Australia.

At the beginning of September the Hon. Mrs. Alfred Lyttleton, D.B.E., was invited by the Foreign Office to be "substitute delegate" to the League of Nations Assembly at Geneva. At the International Labour Conference at Geneva in October, Canada was represented, among others, by Miss Caroline Carmichael, of New Glasgow, Nova Scotia, with Mrs. James Carruthers (Violet Markham) as adviser.

Miss L. E. Cheesman, Curator of Insects at the Zoological Gardens, is to be a member of the scientific expedition to the South Seas, led by Commander Blair and Mr. Kealey. Miss Cheesman is to deal with the subject of entomology.

Among the distinguished women occupying almost unique positions is Miss Gertrude Bell, of Mesopotamia, the famous traveller, who some years ago was awarded by the Royal Geographical Society the Gill Memorial for her years of work in exploring the geography and archæology of Syria, Mesopotamia and Turkey-in-Asia. Miss Bell is now a great power in Mesopotamia, and is regarded by the various peoples with whom she has negotiations with awe as well as with admiration.

Miss Margaret Bondfield was, in September, elected chairman of the General Council of the Trades Union Congress, a position she will hold for a year. Consequently she will preside at the next Congress. She is the first woman to occupy the chair, and the election is a recognition not only of the large part which women now take in trade unionism, but of the great service which Miss Bondfield has rendered to the Labour movement.

In the late summer, Mrs. Stan Harding, the journalist, who suffered imprisonment at the hands of the Soviet Government, received £3,000 compensation from that Government.

The annual conference of the National Council of Women of Great Britain and Ireland was held in Edinburgh from October 16th to 22nd. The subject of the conference was "The Call of the Children." Lady Frances Balfour delivered the presidential address.

At the meeting of the British Association Congress, held at Liverpool in September, nearly a thousand women were present, many of them women doctors, or scientists. Twenty-one read papers on various subjects.

### Women in the Arts.

During the year women have steadily held their own in the arts. Women were responsible either in whole or in part for two of the successful plays of the past season. Miss May Edginton (Mrs. Baily) was part author of "Secrets," and Miss Dorothy Brandon wrote "The Outsider," which was produced at the St. James's Theatre and had a successful run. In this piece Miss Isobel Elsom, who played the lame heroine, showed a marked advance in her work. Other popular actresses who have done well during the year are Miss Gladys Cooper, Miss Sybil Thorndike and Miss Meggie Albanesi.

Among the women writers of standing who have published new novels are Sheila Kaye-Smith, with "The End of the House of Alard," Storm Jameson, G. B. Stern, V. Sackville-West, Vere Hutchinson, May Sinclair, Cynthia Stockley, Mary Gaunt and Beatrice Kean Seymour, the last a comparatively new favourite whose work is in a high class.

Women who have written books other than fiction include, conspicuously, Lady Butler, whose "Autobiography" was well reviewed and widely read. In her foreword Mrs. M. E. Francis said: "It is the revelation of a personality apart, at once feminine and virile, endued with the force engendered by unswerving adherence to lofty aims."

Another writer of autobiography was Miss Alice Hughes, the famous photographer, who in "My Father and I," paid the tribute of a devoted daughter to a beloved father, while the reminiscences of Walburga, Lady Paget, published in September, aroused much interest. Miss Elizabeth Haldane's book on nursing and Lady Cynthia Asquith's on children both deserve mention.

### Women in Adventure.

Several British women have figured in the year as performing deeds of daring. Heroic was the behaviour of Mrs. Harold (Lilian Agnes) Starr, a British nurse attached to the Peshawar Medical Mission at Khandi Bazar, who went, accompanied only by a tribal commander-of-horse, to rescue Miss Mollie Ellis, from the savage Afridis who murdered her mother. Miss Ellis, a girl of seventeen, was taken from the bungalow of her father, Major Ellis, Border Regiment, and when rescued was found unharmed.



Mrs. Starr is the daughter of the late Rev. J. Wade, a missionary to India, and the widow of Dr. Harold Starr, surgeon to the Peshawar Mission, who was murdered by tribesmen. Mrs. Starr was awarded the Kaiser-i-Hind medal and bar, and was also presented with the Gold Medal of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem.

In September Mrs. Rosita Forbes (Mrs. McGrath), the famous traveller and author, returned to London after her third venture in wild places. The chief feature of her trip was a visit to the Moroccan brigand, Raisuli (or Raisuni) in his palace at Tazrut; Beni Aras, where she spent eleven days. Mrs. Forbes was the first white woman to be received in the mountain stronghold of the man who captured the late Kaid Maclean.

Another woman traveller is Lady Dorothy Mills, whose desert stories have attracted a wide circle of readers. A rival to these ladies, as a traveller, is Mrs. Diana Strickland, who left in the autumn for a journey through Central Africa, accompanied by other venturesome explorers.

Among women who have accomplished feats of endurance is Mrs. George Duller, who has beaten the women's record (set up by Miss Roper) for motor driving. Miss Roper drove 82 miles in an hour, and completed the 100 miles at an average speed of 75 miles an hour. Mrs. Duller so far surpassed her as to do 93½ miles in an hour, and completed the 100 miles at an average speed of 90½ miles per hour. 1923 was Mrs. Duller's first year at Brooklands, where she won three races.

### Royal Events.

During the past year there have been several very notable events in the Royal Family. Such is the affection of the people of the British Empire for the King and Queen and the Queen Mother that there is genuine pleasure felt in all that makes for their happiness. In February the birth took place of a son to H.R.H. Princess Mary, Viscountess Lascelles; in March the beloved Queen Alexandra celebrated the sixtieth anniversary of her arrival in England to become the wife of the then Prince of Wales; and on the 26th of April there was solemnized, amid much rejoicing in all parts of the world, the marriage of H.R.H. the Duke of York to Lady Elisabeth Bowes-Lyon, daughter of the Earl and Countess of Strathmore. This happy event was the occasion for presentations from the people of all parts of the British Empire. Ex-soldiers in the Dominions as well as in Great Britain had reason to remember the kindness and helpfulness of Lady Elisabeth Bowes-Lyon, as many of them were entertained at Glamis Castle, the historic home of the Strathmores.

In August Princess Mary was given the Freedom of the City of Glasgow.

Another occasion for congratulation in the Royal Family were the bequests to Princess Arthur of Connaught and to Princess

Maud of Fife (now married to Lord Carnegie) of large sums of money by the late Lord Farquhar, who was an intimate friend of the late Duke of Fife and his family

### Death of Noted Women.

A sad occurrence was the death of Princess Christian, aunt of His Majesty the King and daughter of the late Queen Victoria, whose kind interest in charitable enterprises had endeared her to the public.

Several other notable women passed away during 1923, or the latter part of 1922. In November, 1922, the death occurred of Mrs. Alice Meynell, the famous poet, daughter of the late J. T. Thompson, and sister of Lady Butler, who, as Miss Elizabeth Thompson, created a sensation with her picture, "The Roll-Call." Mrs. Meynell began her career as a poet when a young girl. Her first collection, "Preludes," contained some beautiful verses. Ruskin admired especially "A Girl's Letter to Her Own Old Age." Mrs. Meynell (whose married life with Wilfrid Meynell lasted forty-five years) was a devoted supporter of women's suffrage.

In the early winter the world of letters lost another brilliant adherent, Miss Katherine Mansfield (Mrs. John Middleton Murry), who died at Fontainebleau on January 9th. Miss Mansfield, whose "Bliss" and "The Garden Party" foreshadowed even better work, was the daughter of Sir Harold Beauchamp, of Wellington, New Zealand, and a writer of whom the Dominion had every reason to be proud.

On July 28th the death occurred of Dr. Flora Murray, C.B.E., M.D., D.P.H., who was the head of the Endell Street Military Hospital during the war. With Dr. Louisa Garrett Anderson she formed the Women's Hospital Corps directly after the outbreak of hostilities. The first of the women's voluntary medical units, it established itself quickly at Paris under the French Government. Later on the corps was asked to start a hospital of 200 beds at Wimereux, afterwards taken over by the R.A.M.C. Sir Alfred Keogh then proposed to the corps the organisation of a hospital of 550 beds in London to be under the control of women. The old St. Giles Workhouse was taken over and equipped for the purpose, with Dr. Flora Murray in charge. The medical staff were graded for pay as the male members of the R.A.M.C., the nurses were attached to the Q.A.I.N.S., and women orderlies were employed. Dr. Murray published, in 1920, an account of her work under the title "Women as Army Surgeons; being the History of the Women's Hospital Corps in Paris, Wimereux and Endell Street, September, 1914—October, 1919."

At the beginning of February the death took place of Mrs. Smedley, mother of Constance Smedley (Mrs. Maxwell Armfield), founder of the Lyceum Club in Piccadilly, and herself a most

devoted supporter of the principles for which the Lyceum club was founded, and upon which it is maintained. Mrs. Smedley was especially interested in the international aspect of the Club and was invariably hospitable and helpful to members of the foreign affiliated clubs.

A famous scientist was lost to the world in the death in the late summer of Mrs. Hertha Ayrton, widow of Professor W. E. Ayrton, with whom she was associated first as a pupil and later as a co-investigator. Mrs. Ayrton, who was the only woman member of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, would have been, very likely, a Fellow of the Royal Society had it not been decided that the Society had no right to elect a woman to such a position. Mrs. Ayrton, in 1915, invented and offered to the War Office a hand fan for use against poison gas. The first issue of the fans was made in 1916, and the total number supplied was 104,000.

Mrs. Frederic Mond, widow of Dr. Ludwig Mond, F.R.S., and mother of Sir Alfred Mond, Bt., M.P., who died in May, 1923, left various sums for educational purposes, including £1,000 to Bedford College.

#### **Memorials to Women.**

The report was published late in the summer of the Mary Macarthur Memorial Committee. The total amount subscribed was £2,347, of which £500 was used for the endowment of a bed in the Mary Macarthur Holiday Home for Working Women at Ongar, Essex. The remainder was added to the Emma Patterson and Lady Dilke Memorial Funds, to provide scholarships for the education and training of women who wish to serve the trade union and Labour movements.

A stained-glass window in memory of Mary Slessor, the Scottish factory girl who, inspired by the example of Livingstone, went out as a missionary to the West Coast of Africa, was formally handed over to the Albert Institute at Dundee, in September, by ex-Lord Provost Longair and accepted by ex-Bailie J. H. Martin. Mary Slessor did much to civilise the natives of the West Coast, being largely instrumental in bringing about the abolition of the slaughter of twin babes and other inhuman practices.

#### **Health of Women.**

The health of the women of any nation being so important a matter, it is encouraging to learn from a report by Dr. J. M. H. Campbell, of Guy's Hospital, that the health of the young women of the present day is improving. Chlorosis, which at one time was very prevalent among women, is rapidly disappearing from both Europe and America. The opinion of Dr. Campbell is that this improved condition of affairs is due to the fact that women are enjoying more exercise and fresh air than was formerly the case. Other experts have suggested that this disappearance of

a severe form of anæmia may be credited to the fact that tight lacing is no longer practised, and the organs have freer play. A woman doctor is of the opinion that as the bodies of the Eastern women are not restricted the close confinement they endure does not affect their health to a serious extent. An ex-health officer with experience of Egypt stated in *The Times* that young Mahommedan women who did not wear corsets never suffered from anæmia, while young Christian Syrian women who adopted European fashions did so suffer. Whatever the cause of the dying out of this disease, it is a matter for congratulation that women are healthier. In this connection, it should also be noted that valuable work is being done by the Infant Welfare workers and others who are trying to preserve the lives and the health of women and children of the poorer class. Sir George Newman, Chief Medical Officer, Ministry of Health, supplied a prefatory note to a report on "The Training of Midwives," prepared by Dr. Janet Campbell, Senior Medical Officer for Maternity and Child Welfare, Ministry of Health, in which he spoke of the need of a high standard of training for midwives.

### **Women's Employment.**

There was issued in August, as a White Paper, the second interim report of the Central Committee on Women's Training and Employment, reviewing the position to the end of 1922. The Committee was formed in 1920, with the late Miss Mary Macarthur as secretary, to train for peace time employments women and girls whose capacity for earning a livelihood had been handicapped by the war. Since early in 1922 the work of the Committee has been centred upon home craft courses in view of the severe industrial distress, a condition which affects women seriously. The home craft centres trained women for domestic employment, and, according to Mr. J. R. Clynes, M.P., out of the total number of women who entered resident domestic service through the means provided by the Committee, nearly 90 per cent. remained in their occupation. Many of the members of women's trade unions feel that Government has not done enough towards helping the unemployed women and girls.

### **Women's Colleges.**

Education is so powerful a factor in the improvement of the world, one must note with regret, that the appeal fund for the four Oxford Women's Colleges (Lady Margaret Hall, Somerville, St. Hugh's and St. Hilda's) grows but slowly. The amount required is £185,000. In August Lord Curzon acknowledged the sum of over £10,000 for the special fund, to which Her Majesty the Queen contributed £100. A large amount still remains to be raised, and one may be permitted to express sorrow that a legacy to this important fund is seldom, or never, to be noted among the bequests of very rich men and women.

## Sport in 1923.

By GERALD FITZGIBBON.

**A**S in former years, the King and all members of the Royal Family have helped by their presence towards the success of many of the big sporting gatherings of 1923. In racing all the engagements were carried out successfully. His Majesty himself won no less than sixteen races. During the season some remarkable horses were seen. The two which came most prominently before the public were Papyrus, the winner of the Derby, and Mumtaz Mahal, known as the "flying filly." They were much talked about and their exploits will long be remembered by racing enthusiasts. A notable event was the appearance of a woman jockey—Miss Betty Tanner—who rode in the Town Plate at Newmarket on October 11th, and came in third.

Cricket and football were not, perhaps, quite so exciting as in previous years, but on both fields some fine performances were witnessed. In the County Championship Yorkshire beat Somerset by seven wickets and Bolton Wanderers won the F.A. Cup. At the final football match at the Wembley Stadium, where the fixture was played for the first time, there were some distressing scenes owing to the breakdown of arrangements for dealing with the tremendous crowd.

At the vast number of athletic meetings there were some conspicuous achievements. Although, as in previous years, many foreigners were victorious, on the whole the all-round improvement of the British was well maintained. In golf, evidence was again forthcoming of the earnestness with which young men and women are taking to the game. Roger H. Wethered won the British Amateur Championship and A. G. Havers the Open Championship. The big tennis matches, as usual, drew enormous crowds. In the World's Lawn Championship Mlle. Lenglen was again a central figure amongst the lady players and retained her title. Cowes week was most brilliant, and during the season the King's yacht *Britannia* was successful on a number of occasions. The polo season was all that lovers of the game could desire, and Henley was simply perfect. As an instance of the peculiar happenings in the boxing world, it was recorded in the last "Year Book" how Carpentier had been beaten by Siki and that, apparently, his boxing career had come to an end. In October the Frenchman came back full of his old vigour and defeated Joe Beckett, heavy-weight Champion of England, in fifteen seconds. In most sports, amateurs approach pretty closely to professionals in proficiency. This does not, however, seem to apply to billiards.

Taking a rapid glance back at the whole year, it may be said that British men and women have acquitted themselves well.



Following are some of the principal records in 1923:—

# ARCHERY.

Cambridge, July.

Results of the Grand National Archery Meeting.—Silver Challenge Belt and Quiver, Miss Legh (Cheltenham), the Champion's Gold Medal, Mr. R. Brooks-King (Somerset); the Walrond Memorial Cup, Mrs. S. H. Armitage (Stretton Archers); the Championess Silver Brazer and Badge, Mrs. Boddam Whetham (West Kent); the Challenge Brooch for the best Gold, Miss N. E. Wallace (Mersey Bowman); County Challenge Prize, Herefordshire Spedding Challenge Cup, Mrs. Atkinson (Archers of the Weald); Fisher Challenge Cup, Mr. W. Andrew (West Berkshire Archers); and the County Challenge Cup was won by Somerset.

## WOODMAN OF ARDEN.

Meriden, Warwickshire, August.

At the last day's shooting of the Woodmen of Arden, the silver bugle was won by Brig-Gen. Westmacott and the bowl given by the Scottish archers by the Rev. A. E. Bedford.

## WOMAN CHAMPION.

Tunbridge Wells, September 13th.

On the conclusion of the southern counties archery meeting, Mrs. Atkinson, of St. Leonards, Sussex, retained the title of woman champion, Mrs. Shillito being second, and Lady Maud Warreuder third.

Mrs. Boddam-Whetham, of Folkestone, woman champion of England, came in ninth and was beaten by one point by Miss Chapman aged 16, of St. Augustine's, Kent.

# ATHLETICS.

## A.A.A. CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Stamford Bridge, July 6th and 7th.

100 Yards.—E. H. Liddell (Edinburgh A.C.). Time, 9 7/10 sec.

220 Yards.—E. H. Liddell (Edinburgh University A.C.). Time, 21 3/5 sec.

440 Yards Championship.—W. E. Stevenson (Oxford University A.C.). Time, 49 3/5 sec.

880 Yards Championship.—C. R. Griffiths (Surrey A.C.). Time, 1 min. 56 3/5 sec.

One Mile.—H. B. Stallard (Achilles Club). Time, 4 min. 21 3/5 sec.

Throwing the Hammer.—M. C. Nokes, (Achilles Club). 161 ft. 4 1/2 in.

Two Miles Steeplechase.—Percy Hodge (Surrey A.C.). Time, 11 min. 13 3/5 sec.

120 Yards Hurdles.—F. R. Gaby (holder) (Polytechnic Harriers). Time, 15 1/5 sec., beating the previous best championship performance.

High Jump.—P. Lewden (holder) (Stade Francais), 6 ft. Lewden subsequently jumped 6 ft. 4 in., beating the previous best championship performance.

Pole Jump.—P. Lewden (Stade Francais), walked over.

Long Jump.—H. M. Abrahams (Cambridge University A.C.), 23 ft. 8 1/2 in.

Throwing the Javelin.—J. Dalrymple (Bedford and County A.C.), 143 ft. 9 1/2 in.

Two Miles Walking Championship.—G. H. Watts (Surrey W.C.), 14 min. 24 sec.

One Mile Relay Championship.—(880 yds., 220, 220 and 440).—Surrey Athletic Club (holders). Time, 3 min. 36 4/5 sec.

## UNIVERSITY SPORTS.

Queen's Club, March 24th. Results:—

100 Yards.—H. M. Abrahams (Caius Cambridge). Time, 10 sec.

One Mile.—W. R. Milligan (University, Oxford). Time, 4 min. 26 sec.

Putting the Weight.—F. K. Brown (Exeter, Oxford). 42 ft. 8 in.

Long Jump.—H. M. Abrahams (Caius, Cambridge). 23 ft. 7 1/2 in. (Inter-Varsity record).

High Jump.—R. J. Dickinson (Oriel, Oxford). 5 ft. 11 in.

120 Yards Hurdles.—R. Stapledon (Queen's Oxford). Time, 16 1/5 sec.

Quarter Mile.—H. M. Abrahams (Caius, Cambridge). Time, 50 4/5 sec.

Three Miles.—N. A. McInnes (New, Oxford). 15 min. 22 sec.

Pole Jump.—D. R. Michener (Hertford Oxford). 10 ft. 6 in.

220 Yards Low Hurdles.—T. Huhn (University, Oxford). Time, 24 4/5 sec.

Half Mile.—D. G. A. Lowe (Pembroke, Cambridge). Time, 2 min. 4/5 sec.

## PUBLIC SCHOOLS CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Stamford Bridge, April 14th. Results:—

100 Yards.—C. F. N. Harrison, Eton. Time 10 2/5 sec.

880 Yards.—M. F. Young, Westminster. 2 min. 5 3/5 sec.

120 Yards Hurdles.—R. G. Besley, Taunton. 18 2/5 sec.

Long Jump.—V. B. Powell, Clifton. 21 ft. 9 1/2 in.

440 Yards.—E. T. Casdagli, Harrow. 53 3/5 sec.

Mile.—V. E. Morgan, Charterhouse (holder). 4 min. 36 2/5 sec.

Mile Walk.—J. B. Carne, Polytechnic. 7 min. 32 4/5 sec.

High Jump.—L. V. Cholmeley, Blundell's. 5 ft. 3 in.

Three-quarter Mile Steeplechase.—V. E. Morgan, Charterhouse. 4 min. 3 3/5 sec.

Two Miles Steeplechase (L.A.C. Cup).—J. A. Callum (holder). 12 min. 43 2/5 sec.

The Schools Challenge Cup was won by Clifton College with 21 points.

## LADIES' INTERNATIONAL.

Burnham, May.—In the 1923 series of ladies' international matches, once again England secured the championship. They won all three encounters, against Scotland, Wales, and Ireland, while Scotland, with wins over Ireland and Wales, were second; Ireland, by beating Wales, third; and the Principality, with a defeat in each encounter, finished last. England beat Ireland by eight matches to one, and Scotland defeated Wales by seven games to two.

## POLYTECHNIC SPORTS.

Stamford Bridge, June 16th.—The chief events at this meeting were a match between the promoting club and the Stade Francais, Paris; the annual inter-club competition for the Kinnaird Trophy; and the annual long-distance "Marathon" race, from Windsor Castle to Stamford Bridge.

The Dane, A. G. Jensen, finished first in the Marathon race in 2 hrs. 40 min. 46 4/5 sec.

The "international" match ended in favour of the Stade Francais, who won four of the seven events; and the Kinnaird Trophy again went to the Achilles Club, the holders, who scored a total of 25 1/2 points to the Polytechnic Harriers 2 1/2.

## ENGLISH NATIVE CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Manchester, June 23rd.—The first Amateur Championship Meeting for English-born Athletes was held at Fallowfield. Results:—

## The British Dominions Year Book 1924

100 Yards.—H. M. Abrahams, Cambridge U.A.C. Time, 10 12/100 sec.

One Mile.—C. E. Blewitt, Birchfield H. Time, 4 min. 21 3/5 sec.

Throwing the Discus.—W. E. B. Henderson, Achilles A.C. 107 ft. 10 in.

120 Yards Hurdles.—F. R. Gaby, Polytechnic H. Time, 15 95/100 sec.

Half Mile.—S. A. Spencer, South London H. Time, 2 min. 5 2/5 sec.

High Jump.—W. H. Carpenter, Redhill and District H. and A.C. 5 ft. 9 1/2 in.

Pole Jump.—G. E. Macey, Army, 10ft. 3 1/4 in.

Two Miles Steeplechase.—P. Hodge, Surrey A.C. Time, 11 min. 17 1/5 sec.

Putting the Weight.—H. Waterhouse, Cambridge University A.C. 37 ft. 8 in.

220 Yards.—H. M. Abrahams, Cambridge University A.C. Time 22 25/100 sec.

Throwing the Javelin.—Capt. F. A. M. Webster, London A.C. 134 ft. 1 in.

Quarter-Mile.—J. R. Major, London A.C. Time, 51 3/5 sec.

Four Miles.—L. Cpl. W. M. Cotterell, R. Corps of Signals. Time, 20 min. 5 1/5 sec.

Long Jump.—H. M. Abrahams, Cambridge University A.C. 23 ft. 2 1/2 in.

Quarter Mile Hurdle Race.—J. T. Evans, Sparkhill H. Time, 59 4/5 sec.

Hop, Step and Jump.—J. Odde, Polytechnic H. 44 ft. 7 in.

Two Miles Walk.—G. R. Goodwin, Surrey W.C. Time, 14 min. 40 4/5 sec.

One Mile Relay.—Surrey A.C. Time 3 min. 46 2/5 sec.

### SCOTTISH AMATEUR CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Glasgow, June 23rd.—Results of the Scottish Amateur Championship Meeting at Celtic Park:—

100 Yards.—E. H. Liddell (Edinburgh Univ.). Hal Mile.—D. McPhee (West of Scotland Harriers) (holder).

Putting the Weight.—T. R. Nicholson (West of Scotland H.) (holder).

120 Yards Hurdles.—A. F. Clark (Glasgow University).

220 Yards.—E. H. Liddell (Edinburgh University) (holder).

One Mile.—D. McPhee (West of Scotland H.) (holder).

Throwing the Hammer (Free Style).—T. R. Nicholson (West of Scotland H.) (holder).

Tug-of-War.—Glasgow Police A.C., No. 1 Team.

Quarter Mile.—J. C. McColl (Glasgow Univ.) (holder).

High Jump.—K. M. Smith (West of Scotland H.) (holder).

Throwing the Hammer (Scotch Style).—T. R. Nicholson (West of Scotland H.) (holder).

Putting the Weight (Scottish).—T. R. Nicholson (West of Scotland H.) (holder).

Three Miles Walk.—Colin McLellan (Shettleston H.) (holder).

Broad Jump.—L. J. Dunn (Edinburgh) (holder).

Four Miles.—J. G. McIntyre (Shettleston H.) (holder).

Pole Vault.—R. Jamieson (Shettleston H.). Mile Relay.—Edinburgh University A.C.

### LONDON TERRITORIAL CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Leyton, June 30th.

100 Yards.—Sig. B. C. Challen. Time, 10 4/5 sec.

880 Yards.—Sig. R. J. C. Hunt. 2 min. 5 2/5 sec.

120 Yards Hurdles.—2nd-Lt. Mallam. 18 4/5 sec.

220 Yards.—Rideman P. H. Dove, 16th London. 23 4/5 sec.

One Mile.—Sig. H. Tye, 2nd Cav. Div. Signals. 4 min. 40 1/5 sec.

440 Yards.—Sig. R. J. C. Hunt, 2nd Cav. Div. Signals. 54 1/5 sec.

440 Yards Cadets' Race.—Cpl. F. J. Frisby, 1st C.B. K.R.R. 64 sec.

Three Miles Race.—Rfm. Dare, 5th London. 15 min. 16 4/5 sec.

Mile Relay (440, 220, 220, 880).—2nd Cav. Div. Signals. 3 min. 54 1/5 sec.

Mile Relay (open to Service units) (440, 220, 220, 880).—1st Batt. Scots Guards.

Tug-of-War.—2nd Air Defence Brigade.

Long Jump.—Sgt. W. G. Madden, 6th London, 19 ft.

High Jump.—Pte. G. L. Hartkey, 28th London, 5 ft. 3 in.

### INTERNATIONAL CONTEST.

Stoke-on-Trent, July 14th.—Results of the Fifth International Contest between England, Scotland and Ireland:—

Half-Mile.—D. G. A. Lowe, Cambridge University A.C. Time, 1 min. 57 1/5 sec.

100 Yards.—E. H. Liddell, Edinburgh U.A.C. Time, 10 2/5 sec.

Throwing the Hammer.—M. C. Nokes, Achilles A.C. 167 ft. 7 1/2 in.

One Mile.—H. B. Stallard, Achilles A.C. Time, 4 min. 23 1/5 sec.

220 Yards.—E. H. Liddell, Edinburgh University A.C. Time, 22 3/5 sec.

Putting the 16 lb. Shot.—J. O'Grady, Limerick. 40 ft. 8 in.

Quarter Mile.—E. H. Liddell, Edinburgh University A.C. Time, 51 1/5 sec.

Broad Jump.—H. Conway, National University, Ireland. 20 ft. 4 in.

Four Miles.—G. J. Webber, Highgate H. Time, 20 min. 6 3/5 sec.

120 Yards Hurdles.—A. F. Clark, Glasgow U.A.C. Time 17 sec.

High Jump.—K. Smith, West of Scotland H., and T. J. Carroll (Ireland), Polytechnic H., tied at 5 ft. 9 1/2 in.

### WELSH CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Cardiff Arms Park, July 14th. Results:—100 Yards.—W. Owens, Port Talbot. 10 1/5 sec.

220 Yards.—Rove Harding, Swansea. 23 9/10 sec.

Half Mile.—C. R. Griffiths, Surrey A.C. 2 min. 7 sec.

One Mile.—D. J. P. Richards, Newport Harriers. 4 min. 35 2/5 sec.

Quarter Mile.—C. R. Griffiths, Surrey A.C. 54 sec.

Two Miles Walk.—W. G. E. Eaton, Cwmavon. 16 min. 23 1/5 sec.

Long Jump.—W. J. O. Purnell, Splott Y.M.C.A. 20 ft. 10 in.

High Jump.—H. A. B. Nevill, Welsh Regt. 5 ft. 9 in.

Four Miles.—E. Thomas, Newport Harriers. 21 min. 12 sec.

Putting the Weight (16 lb.).—M. Roach, Monmouthshire Police A.C. 32 ft. 9 in.

Welsh Inter-Club Relay Race (one mile).—Roath Harriers, 3 min. 58 sec.

### ARMY INDIVIDUAL CHAMPIONSHIPS

Aldershot, July 17th and 18th. Results:—

High Jump.—Lieutenant Willis (Armoured Cars) (holder). 5 ft. 10 in. (Army Record).

Three Miles.—Lance-Corporal W. M. Cotterell (Royal Corps of Signals) (holder). 14 min. 40 1/5 sec. (Army Record.)

Putting the Weight.—Lieutenant Beckwith (5th Fusiliers). 41 ft. 7 1/2 in. (Army Record.) 220 Yards.—Lieut. Rowe, The Buffs. 23 1/5 sec.

880 Yards.—Lieut. Christie, Gordon Highlanders. 1 min. 59 2/5 sec. (new Army Record.)

440 Yards.—Lce.-Cpl. Hunt, Coldstream Guards. 51 3/5 sec.

Long Jump.—Bomb. S. C. Jones (holder). R.F.A. 21 ft. 4 in.

100 Yards Championship.—Lieut. Rowe. The Buffs. 10 2/5 sec.

Throwing the Javelin.—Sgt. Sayers, Depot Welsh Guards, 130 ft. 3 in.

120 Yards Hurdles.—Lce.-Cpl. Cole, Tank Workshops Training Batt., 16 2/5 sec.

Pole Jump.—Q.M.S.I. G. C. Macey, Army Physical Training Staff. 10 ft. 9 in. (Army Record.)

One Mile. Lce.-Cpl. Cotterell, Royal Corps of Signals, 4 min. 27 4/5 sec. (Army Record.)

Throwing the Discus.—Bmdr. Laidlaw, R.G.A. 104 ft. 2 1/2 in.

Throwing the Hammer.—Lce.-Sgt. Griffin, R.C. of Sigs. 98 ft. 2 in.

## INTER-SERVICES CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Uxbridge, August 8th.

The Army won six of the events and took the championship. R.A.F. won three events, but the Navy did not win any. Results:—

Two Miles.—R.A.F. Won by two yards in 8 min. 23 4/5 sec.

440 Yards.—R.A.F. Won by 3 yards in 44 4/5 sec.

360 Yards Hurdles.—The Army. Won by 10 yards, in 51 sec.

High Jump.—R.A.F. (aggregate jump 11 ft. 3 in.)

One Mile Team Race.—The Army. Time, 4 min. 34 3/5 sec.

Putting the Weight.—The Army. Aggregate 82 ft. 8 in.

One Mile Relay.—The Army. Won by 50 yards in 3 min. 30 1/5 sec.

Three Miles Team Race.—The Army. Three Army runners dead-heated for first place in 16 min. 1 1/5 sec.

Long Jump.—1. Army (41 ft. 5 1/2 in.); 2, R.A.F. (41 ft. 5 in.); 3, The Navy (38 ft. 9 1/2 in.).

The best individual jump was Flight Officer G. A. Hadley (R.A.F.) with 21 ft. 1 1/2 in. Bombardier S. C. Jones (Royal Artillery) jumped 20 ft. 11 1/2 in. and Sergt. Fray (Tank Battalion) 20 ft. 6 in. for the Army.

## ENGLAND V. AMERICA.

Wembley, July 21.—The athletic contest between the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge and Harvard and Yale ended in a victory for Oxford and Cambridge by 6 1/2 events to 5 1/2. Results:—

120 Yards 'High Hurdles.—A. Hulman (Yale). Time 15 3/5 sec.

100 Yards. H. M. Abrahams (Cambridge). Time, 10 sec.

Putting the Weight.—C. A. Eastman (Harvard) 44 ft. 2 in.

Quarter Mile.—G. W. Chapman (Yale). Time, 50 3/5 sec.

One Mile.—C. E. Davis (Cambridge). Time, 4 min. 21 3/5 sec.

Long Jump.—H. M. Abrahams (Cambridge). 23 ft. 2 1/2 in.

High Jump.—R. J. Dickinson (Oxford) and R. D. Gerould (Harvard), a tie at 5 ft. 9 in., for first place.

Two Miles.—W. L. Tibbets (Harvard) Time, 9 min. 41 4/5 sec.

Pole Jump.—S. Scholpp (Yale). 12 ft. 220 Yards, Low Hurdles.—T. Huhn (Oxford). Time, 25 1/5 sec.

Half Mile.—D. G. A. Lowe (Cambridge). Time, 1 min. 56 3/5 sec.

220 Yards.—H. M. Abrahams (Cambridge). Time, 21 3/5 sec.

Oxford and Cambridge have now opposed Harvard and Yale on six occasions, the English Universities having won three matches, decided in this country, and the Americans having proved successful in two contests in their own country and one here, so that, on the series, honours are even.

## POLICE SPORTS.

Stamford Bridge, August 11th.

The City Police sports included the mile flat championship of Middlesex, which was won by M. R. D. Pugh, Queen's Park Harriers, who beat G. J. Webber, Highgate Harriers, in 4 min. 30 2/5 sec. The half-mile relay championship of the Police was won by the Metropolitan Police "A" team.

## WALKING.

ROAD CHAMPIONSHIP.—Leicester, April 21st.

—The National twenty miles' road walking championship was won by a local athlete in F. Poynton, of the Leicester Harriers, in 2 hrs. 51 min. 35 sec. The team championship was retained by the Surrey Walking Club, who have been successful on eight out of the eleven occasions on which the championship has been contested.

STOCK EXCHANGE WALK.—April 28th.—The seventh of the London to Brighton walking races held by the Stock Exchange was won by H. St. George Taylor. Time, 9 h. 28 min 30 sec.

POLICE WALKING CHAMPION.—May 17th.—From a field of 124 police constables, Miles (Z Division) won the British and Metropolitan Police Championship from Barking to Southend. The 32 miles was covered in 5 h. 15 min. 2 1/2 sec.

PARLIAMENTARY WALKERS.—August 27th.—After a desperate struggle and several collapses, Mr. Frank Gray, M.P. for Oxford City, beat Captain Ainsworth, M.P. for Bury, in a twenty-three and a half miles walking race from Banbury Cross to Oxford. The race, in which both M.P.s wore soldiers' full marching order, was the outcome of a challenge by Mr. Frank Gray. Time, 6 hrs. 1 min.

THE BRIGHTON WALK.—September 15th.—The Surrey Walking Club's Annual Race to Brighton from Westminster was won by F. Poynton, Leicester Harriers, whose time was, 8 hr. 35 min. 37 sec.

## CROSS COUNTRY.

EASTERN COMMAND CHAMPIONSHIP.—March 8th.—Lance-Corporal W. M. Cotterell at Colchester won the cross-country championship of the Eastern Command, over a 6 1/2 miles course, from a field of 169 runners, representing 10 teams, in 38 min. 30 sec.

NATIONAL CROSS COUNTRY CHAMPIONSHIP.—Hall Barn, Beaconsfield, March 10th.—The course, which included a good stretch of plough, and which was indicated by pointsmen with flags, in addition to a paper trail, consisted of one lap of one mile and three-quarters in the park, and two laps of rather less than four-and-a-half miles each of parkland and open country. C. E. Bennett (Barnet) H.L. was the winner, beating W. M. Cotterell, by a few yards, in 58 min. 32 sec.

# The British Dominions Year Book 1924

**INTERNATIONAL.**—Paris, March 25th.—The international cross country was won by France, who scored 33 points to England's 76. C. E. Blewitt, of the Blackheath Harriers, however, finished first in 58 min. 11 4/5 sec., with McIntyre, the Scotsman, second. Seven of the first twelve men to finish, however, were Frenchmen.

## WOMEN ATHLETES.

Bromley, Kent, August 18th.—A gathering, consisting solely of the Championships of the Women's Amateur Athletic Association, was held for the first time. Results:—

100 Yards.—M. Lines (L.O.A.C.). Time, 12 sec.

Putting the 8 lb. Weight (two hands added).—Birchenough (L.O.A.C.). 53 ft. 0 1/2 in.

Half Mile Running.—E. Trickey (N.B. and M.S.C.). Time, 2 min. 40 1/5 sec.

120 Yards Hurdles.—M. Lines (L.O.A.C.). Time, 18 4/5 sec.

Long Jump.—M. Lines (L.O.A.C.). 16 ft. 3 1/4 in.

Half Mile Walk.—E. Trickey (N.B. and M.S.C.). Time, 4 min. 35 sec.

Quarter Mile.—M. Lines (L.O.A.C.). Time, 62 3/5 sec.

220 Yards.—E. W. Edwards (L.O.A.C.). Time, 27 sec. (World's record for girls.)

Throwing the Javelin (both hands added).—S. C. Eliot-Lynn, 117 ft. 4 in.

High Jump.—H. Hatt (L.O.A.C.). 4 ft. 9 in. Hatt won on jumping off, after a tie with Lowman at 4ft. 8 in.

Relay Race (220 yards, 110 yards, 220 yards and 110 yards) for affiliated clubs.—London Olympiads A.C. A team. Time, 1 min. 26 4/5 sec.

## A RUNNING RECORD.

The Stadium, Stockholm, August 24th.—P. Nurmi, the Finnish athlete, broke the world's three miles running record, covering the distance in 14 min. 11 1/5 sec. He accomplished this feat while running 5,000 metres, which he completed in 14 min. 39 9/10 sec. The official amateur record was that of A. Shrubbs, 14 min. 17 3/5 sec.

## A.A.A. RUNNING AND WALKING.

Stamford Bridge, September 29th.—Winners of long distance running and walking championships of the Amateur Athletic Association:—  
7 Miles Walking Championship.—G. H. Watts, Surrey Walking Club, holder. 54 min. 35 2/5 sec.

10 Miles Running Championship.—E. Harper, Hallamshire H. 53 min. 34 3/5 sec.

## BADMINTON.

### MIDDLESEX CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Badminton Hall, Ealing, January 6th.

Final Rounds:—

Mixed Doubles.—F. J. Devlin and Miss Peterson beat W. M. Swinden and Mrs. Horsley (15-7, 15-12).

Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. Bisgood and Mrs. Tragett beat Miss Douglass and Mrs. Pollitt (15-6, 17-14).

Men's Doubles.—A. K. Jones and H. S. Uber beat Sir G. A. Thomas and P. V. Dupre (15-13, 15-8).

Men's Singles.—F. J. Devlin beat Sir G. A. Thomas (15-5, 15-12).

Ladies' Singles Championship.—Miss Radeaglia beat Miss Neville (11-6, 11-5).

### NORTHERN CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Birkenhead, January 13th. Final rounds:—

Open Doubles.—Sir G. A. Thomas and E. Hawthorn (holders) beat J. K. Blackwood and A. G. Verity (15-4, 12-15, 15-7).

Ladies' Open Doubles.—Miss Hogarth and Miss Neville beat Miss D. Hill and Mrs. A. G. Walker (18-16, 12-15, 18-17).

Open Mixed Doubles.—Sir G. A. Thomas and Miss Hogarth beat E. Hawthorn and Miss Neville (15-10, 17-16).

### HAMPSHIRE CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Southampton, February 17th.—Finals of the Hampshire Badminton Championships:—

Men's Open Doubles.—R. du Roneray and J. F. Devlin beat W. M. Swinden and Capt. Gardner (9-15, 15-9, 15-3).

Ladies' Open Doubles.—Mrs. Tragett and Miss Stewart beat Mrs. Pollitt and Miss Neville (18-13, 15-6).

Open Mixed Doubles.—H. S. Uber and Mrs. Tragett beat W. M. Swinden and Mrs. Horsley (15-11, 15-9).

### SURREY CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Richmond, March.

Miss Neville won the Surrey Women's Badminton Championship by beating Miss Cobbett 13-10, 11-2, in the final.

J. F. Devlin and G. S. B. Mack won the Doubles Championship by defeating in the final E. Hawthorn and P. D. MacFarlane by 15-2, 15-8. In the final of the Mixed Doubles Championship, Mack and Mrs. Tragett defeated Devlin and Miss E. Stewart (15-18, 15-11, 15-13). Miss Elton and Miss L. C. Radeaglia beat Miss I. Nailard and Mrs. Tragett in the final of the Ladies' Doubles (15-6, 16-18, 15-12).

### SUSSEX CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Hove, February.

Sir G. A. Thomas, the Badminton champion, was defeated by the Irish international, F. J. Devlin, in the final of the Sussex Singles Championship. Miss Radeaglia won the Women's Singles Championship.

Sir G. A. Thomas and F. J. Devlin won the men's doubles, Miss Hogarth and Mrs. Tragett, the women's doubles, and Sir G. A. Thomas and Miss Hogarth the mixed doubles championships.

### ALL ENGLAND CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Royal Horticultural Hall, Westminster, March 6th-10th. Annual All-England Championship Meeting. Results of finals:—

Men's Singles.—Sir G. A. Thomas (holder) beat H. S. Uber, 15-10, 15-10.

Ladies' Singles.—Miss L. C. Radeaglia beat Mrs. Horsley, 11-8, 11-6.

Men's Doubles.—F. J. Devlin and G. S. B. Mack beat Sir G. A. Thomas and W. M. Swinden, 15-8, 18-13.

Mixed Doubles.—G. S. B. Mack and Mrs. Tragett beat Sir G. A. Thomas and Miss Hogarth (holders), 15-10, 15-7.

Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. Tragett and Miss Hogarth (holders) beat Miss Elton and Miss Radeaglia, 15-3, 18-13.

## BILLIARDS.

### AMATEUR CHAMPION.

Thurston's Hall, Leicester Square, March 3rd:—

In the final of the Amateur Billiards Championship, W. P. McLeod (Middlesbrough) beat J. Graham Symes (London) by 133 points, the final scores being: McLeod, 3,000; Symes, 2,867. The same players met in the final in the previous year, when Symes won the title.

## SMITH V. NEWMAN.

Leicester Square Hall, March 17th:—Smith beat Newman in the final match of the series of seven, by 792 points, the final scores being Smith, 16,000; Newman, 15,208. Smith won four matches to three.

## BOYS' CHAMPIONSHIP.

April 14th.

The final of the Boys' Championship resulted in a win for W. Leigh (Derby), who beat F. Edwards (Stourbridge) by 118 points, the final scores being: Leigh, 600; Edwards, 482.

## AMATEUR SNOOKER POOL CHAMPIONSHIP.

March. Result:—

W. Coupe (Leicester) beat E. Forshall (London) by 6 games out of 7, his aggregate being 432 to Forshall's 337.

## THE CHAMPIONSHIP.

Holborn Billiard Hall, May 12th.

W. Smith, the Darlington professional, defeated T. Newman, the holder, in the final for the Professional Championship by 820 points. Smith thus regained the title he relinquished after his success in 1920. Final scores: Smith, 16,000; Newman, 15,180.

Newman, when playing Iman in the semi-final heat of the Championship, made a break of 850, thus beating the previous best in a Championship, 785, made by Smith against Falkiner in 1920.

## BOWLS.

### LONSDALE TROPHY.

July 19th.—W. J. Jones (Crouch Hill) won the Lonsdale gold trophy and became the single-handed champion of the London and S.C.B.A.

### COUNTY CHAMPIONSHIP.

Heathfield Green, July 21st.

For the fourth time the Surrey County Bowling Association won the County Bowls Championship of the English Bowling Association. There were four counties left in, Surrey, Kent, Devon, and Northumberland. Surrey led all the way in the final, and eventually won by 129 to 109.

### CHALLENGE SHIELD.

Brighton, July 28th.—In the final for the London and S.C.B.A. Challenge Shield, Croydon beat Crouch Hill (holders), by 2 shots.

### SCOTTISH CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Queen's Park Green, Glasgow, August 4th.

The winners in the semi-finals of the Singles were W. H. Scouller (Corstorphine), holder, who beat W. F. Ford (Lochee) by 21 shots to 11, and J. C. Irving (Lockerbie), who got the better of W. S. Lowe (Musselburgh) by 21 shots to 16. In the final, Scouller won by 21 to 14. In the Rink semi-finals, the winners were Niddrie, who beat Newton Stewart by 33 to 7, and Saltcoats, who beat L. Ronans by 21 to 19. The final fell to Saltcoats by 21 to 19.

### ENGLISH CHAMPIONS.

Wellingborough, August 14th and 16th.

W. F. Wade, of Hincley, Leicestershire, became English bowls champion for the first time when in the final round he defeated G. Sansbury, of Wendover and Chiltern Hills, Buckinghamshire, a left-handed player, who had twice previously won the title, by 21 points to 15.

J. Robinson and J. W. Dick (champion in 1909), of the Gosforth Club, Northumberland, won the English Bowling Association's Pairs Championship, defeating C. W. Webber and J. Lang, of City of Exeter Club, in the final match by 29 points to 13.

### COUNTY FINAL.

Wellingborough, August 18th.

Alnwick, Northumberland, won the rink championship in the English Bowling Association's championship meeting, defeating Central Park (Essex) by 26 points to 13 in the final round.

## BOXING.

### LIGHT-WEIGHT OF SCOTLAND.

Edinburgh, January 2nd. Seaman Hall (Peebles), the light-weight boxing champion of Great Britain, beat Johnnie Brown (Hamilton) on points in a 20-round contest for the light-weight championship of Scotland.

### LEWIS V. TODD.

Albert Hall, February 15th.—Roland Todd of Doncaster, defeated Ted ("Kid") Lewis, the welter-weight and middle-weight champion of Great Britain, Europe, and the British Empire on points in a 20-round contest.

### JONES V. LLOYD.

National Sporting Club, February 19th.—Soldier Horace Jones, of Canada, defeated Albert Lloyd, of Australia, on points after fifteen rounds.

### BOXING CHAMPIONS.

Paris, February 17th.—At the Fifth Congress of the International Boxing Union, according to Reuter, Montreuil, the Belgian champion, was declared champion of Europe in the fly-weight class. By this decision Jimmy Wilde (England) lost his title.

In the bantam-weight class, Charles Ledoux (France) remained champion, and in the feather-weight class, Eugene Criqui (France) was champion.

Roland Todd (England) was declared European middle-weight champion and Battling Siki became European light-heavy-weight champion.

On the question of world championships, the congress decided:

Bantam-weights: Joe Lynch (U.S.) remained champion.

Feather-weights: Johnny Kilbane (U.S.).

Light-weights: Benny Leonard (U.S.).

Welter-weights: Walker (U.S.).

Middle-weights: Johnny Wilson (U.S.).

As regards the world's light heavy-weight championship, Battling Siki would also be recognised as the world's champion.

Jack Dempsey remained world's heavy-weight champion.

### LAKE V. HARRISON.

National Sporting Club, February 26th.—In a 20-rounds contest for the bantam-weight championship of Great Britain and the Lonsdale belt, Harry Lake, the ex-bugler of the Royal Marines, of Plymouth, defeated Tommy Harrison, of Hanley, and the holder of the title, but not of the belt, on points.

### BOND V. MULLIGAN.

National Sporting Club, March 12th.—In a 15-rounds boxing contest, Phil Bond (Waiworth) beat Norman Mulligan, bantam-weight champion of South Africa, in the 8th round.



# The British Dominions Year Book 1924

## McTIGUE v. SIKI.

Dublin, March 17th.—In a twenty-rounds contest, Mike McTigue beat Battling Siki on points.

## 'VARSITY BOXING.

Oxford, March 9th.—

The annual boxing contests between Oxford and Cambridge Universities, ended in a win for Oxford by 4 events to 3. E. P. F. Eagan, the American from Denver, won both the heavy and light-heavy-weight contests for Oxford.

Feather-weight.—D. C. A. Simmonds (Persse School and Christchurch, Oxford) beat D. R. Rutman (Royal College, Colombo, and Trinity Hall, Cambridge) on points.

Bantam-weight.—D. R. P. Clarke (St. Paul's and Downing, Cambridge) beat F. W. Harrold (Georgia, U.S.A., and Hertford, Oxford), the fight being stopped in the second round.

Heavy-weight.—E. P. F. Eagan (Denver, U.S.A., and New College, Oxford) beat D. A. D. Simpson (Groton, U.S.A., and Trinity, Cambridge), the fight being stopped in the second round.

Welter-weight.—C. A. Nery (British School, Monte Video, and St. John's, Cambridge) beat the Marquis of Clydesdale (Eton and Balliol, Oxford) on points.

Middle-weight.—F. L. Godfrey (Rossall and Merton, Oxford) beat E. Greenhill (Tollington and Jesus, Cambridge) on points.

Light-weight.—P. E. Pierio (St. Thomas, Colombo, and Trinity, Cambridge) beat H. Vaughan (Harrow and Christchurch, Oxford) in the second round.

Light-heavy-weight.—E. P. F. Eagan (Oxford), beat F. Meikle (Aldenharn and Pembroke, Cambridge), the referee stopping the contest in the second round.

## ETON BOXERS.

Eton College, March 10th.—Eleven boys from the Eton Mission, Hackney Wick, opposed a similar number of Etonians in a series of boxing contests. Results:—

10st. 6 lb.—R. S. Nickalls (Eton) beat T. Palmer (Mission).

10 st. 2 lb.—A. M. C. Jenour (Eton), 10 st. 2 lb., beat G. W. Oliva (Mission), 9 st. 6 lb. 8 st. 12 lb.—R. E. Laycock (Eton) beat A. G. Isted (Mission)

8 st. 12 lb.—Hon. H. R. Grosvenor (Eton) beat J. Marshall (Mission).

8 st. 12 lb.—B. E. Oeitiongham (Eton) beat H. A. Ebert (Mission)

8 st. 7 lb.—W. H. Olivier (Eton) beat E. G. Benson (Mission).

8 st.—D. A. Cave (Eton) beat R. F. French (Mission)

8 st.—B. E. O'Brien (Eton) beat F. Nicholls (Mission) on points.

6 st. 6 lb.—A. S. B. Arkwright (Eton) beat R. J. Williams (Mission).

6 st. 6 lb. T. Trotter (Eton) beat B. J. Bell (Mission).

6 st. 6 lb.—D. Haig-Thomas (Eton) beat A. Saunders (Mission).

## HOUSEHOLD BRIGADE CHAMPIONSHIPS.

National Sporting Club, March 16th. Winners: Light-weight.—Guardsman Diddier (holder), 1st Welsh Guards.

Welter-weight.—Lce.-Corp. Hopwood, 1st Coldstream Guards. Middle-weight.—Lce.-Corp. Whitbread, 2nd Scots Guards.

Light-heavy-weight.—Corp. Simons (holder), 1st Welsh Guards.

Heavy-weight.—Guardsman Hainey, 1st Grenadiers, walk-over.

## CITY POLICE.

National Sporting Club, March 17th. Results of the Annual Open Boxing Competitions and Championships of the City of London Police Athletic Club.

11 st. 8 lbs. Club Novices.—Burt beat Lambert in the first round.

9 st. 4 lb. Open Competition.—E. Swash beat J. Kent on points.

8 st. 6 lb. Invitation Competition.—F. Anderson beat G. Diffey on points.

Heavy-weight Club Novices' Competition.—P.C. Hall beat P.C. Spear on points.

Six-rounds Contest.—P.C. Bowman (Metropolitan Police) beat P.C. Johnson (City Police), on points.

Heavy-weight Club Competition (Castello Cup).—P.C. Tuck beat P.C. Birkenhead on points.

11 st. 6 lb. Competition (Police and Fire Brigades).—J. Elliott (Port of London Authority) beat F. Trimming (London Fire Brigade), on points.

## BLOOMFIELD v. JONES.

National Sporting Club, March 26th.—Jack Bloomfield, of London, won the light heavy-weight boxing championship of the British Empire by defeating Soldier Horace Jones, the heavy-weight champion of Canada, in the fifth round of a 20-rounds contest.

## COOK v. GODDARD.

National Sporting Club, April 23rd.—George Cook, the heavy-weight boxing champion of Australia, defeated Frank Goddard, the ex-heavy-weight champion of Great Britain on points in a 20-round contest.

## RICE v. DUPONT.

National Sporting Club, May 1st.—Ernie Rice, the ex-light-weight champion, defeated the Belgian light-weight champion, Harry Dupont.

## AMATEUR CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Alexandra Palace, April 18th. Results of Finals:—

Bantam-weight.—A. Smith (Limehouse B.C.) beat L. Tarrant (Armstrong-Siddeley B.C.) on points.

Fly-weight.—E. Warwick (Columbia B.C.) beat J. McKenzie (Leith Victoria A.A.C.) on points.

Heavy-weight.—E. P. F. Eagan (Oxford University B.C.) beat E. J. Hulks (St. Pancras) in the third round.

Middle-weight.—H. Mallin (Eton Manor B.C.) beat A. Jones (Fulham B.C.) on points.

Light-weight.—G. Shorter (Clapton B.C.) beat A. O'Brien (unattached, Newport) on points.

Welter-weight.—P. W. Green (Avery's B.C.) beat W. Evans (P.L.A. Police A.C. and Poly. B.C.) on points.

Feather-weight.—E. Swash (Clapton Federation B.C.) beat R. Stitchbury (Clapton Federation B.C.) on points.

Light-heavy-weight.—H. Mitchell (Poly. B.C.) walked over; E. Trott (Brighton B.C.) retired.

## TODD v. RATNER.

Holland Park, June 4th.—Roland Todd, the middle-weight champion of Great Britain, defeated Augie Ratner of America, on points in a 20 rounds contest.

## WILDE v. VILLA.

New York, June 18th.—Jimmy Wilde, the Welshman, who held the flyweight boxing championship of the world, failed to "come

back" when he met Pancho Villa, the American Filipino, and lost his title, being knocked out in the seventh round.

## DEMPSEY V. GIBBONS.

Shelby, Montana, July 4th. Jack Dempsey, the world's heavy-weight boxing champion, successfully defended his title in his fight with Tom Gibbons, a St. Paul's, Minneapolis, boxer.

## RATNER V. LEWIS.

Albert Hall, July 30th. Augie Ratner, of America, defeated Ted ("Kid") Lewis, the ex-middle-weight champion of Great Britain, on points after 20 rounds.

## LAKE V. LEDOUX.

Albert Hall, July 30th. Bugler Lake of Plymouth beat Charles Ledoux of France on points.

## CARPENTIER V. NILLES.

Velodrome Buffalo, Paris, May 6th.—In the eighth round, of a twenty round contest for the heavy-weight championship of France, Georges Carpentier defeated Marcel Nilles, the holder of the title.

## BECKETT V. SMITH.

Holland Park, May.—Joe Beckett, of Southampton, knocked out Dick Smith, of the University Gymnasium, Oxford, in the 17th round of a 20 rounds contest for the heavy-weight championship of Great Britain and the Lord Lonsdale challenge belt.

## BLOOMFIELD V. MCGILL.

Olympia, May 17th.—Jack Bloomfield, the light-heavy-weight champion of Great Britain, defeated Dave McGill, of Ireland, in the 13th round of a 20 round contest.

## DEMPSEY V. FIRPO.

New York, September 14th.—Dempsey retained his title of world's heavy-weight champion at the New York Polo Grounds, knocking out his Argentine challenger, Luis Angle Firpo, after fifty-seven seconds of the second round.

## CARPENTIER V. BECKETT.

Olympia, October 1st.—Georges Carpentier, heavy-weight champion of France, defeated Joe Beckett, heavy-weight champion of England, in fifteen seconds.

## CHESS.

### SOUTHERN CHAMPIONSHIP.

Kent and Sussex Club, Tunbridge Wells, March 3rd.—The Championship of the Southern Counties Club was won by Middlesex by 14½ games to 15½.

### BOYS' CHAMPIONSHIP.

Hastings, April.—Final placings and scores:—Milner Barry, Cheltenham College, 2½; Horwich, 2; Stuart, 1½; Brown, 0; Barry, the first boy chess champion, is 16½ years old.

### BRITISH CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Southsea, August 24.—Sir G. A. Thomas won the British chess championship with a score of 9½. F. D. Yates, who held the title since 1921, finished second with 8½ points.

Miss Price, of London, retained the title of British Ladies' Champion.

September 1st.—The Championship Tournament of the British Chess Federation was won by Sir George Thomas, by half a point, from his nearest rival, F. D. Yates, the previous holder of the title.

Sir G. A. Thomas, Bart., was born in 1891, and the chief features of his chess career are: Won championship of Metropolitan Club seven times; won championship of City of London Club four times and tied for it once, but lost the play-off.

## COURSING.

### WATERLOO CUP.

Altcar, February 16th.—Waterloo Cup (with Cup value £100, added by the Earl of Sefton), for 64 subscribers at £25 each; winner £500, second £200. Final:—

Earl of Lonsdale's Latto declared the winner. Mr. T. Harte's Hidden Screw withdrawn on account of distress.

Waterloo Purse of £215, taken from the Cup Stakes, for the 32 dogs beaten in the first round of the Cup. Deciding Course.—Mr. D. Graham's Gold Harp (5-6) beat Earl of Enniskillen's Strolling Player.

Waterloo Plate of £145, taken from the Cup Stakes, for the 32 dogs beaten in the first round of the Cup.—Deciding Course.—Mr. F. Fawcett's Shady Business (3-1) beat Miss R. Fawcett's Flattering Forecast.

## CRICKET.

### THE COUNTY CHAMPIONSHIP.

Taunton, September 4th.—Yorkshire beat Somerset by seven wickets. Thus they gained their 25th Victory in the year's County Championship. It is a feat unsurpassed in this competition. Score:—

### SOMERSET.

#### First Innings.

|                                                 |    |
|-------------------------------------------------|----|
| J. C. W. MacBryan, b. Robinson . . .            | 2  |
| J. C. White, l.-b.-w., b. R. Kilner . . .       | 27 |
| M. D. Lyon, c. Macaulay, b. Robinson . . .      | 0  |
| Young, b. Macaulay . . .                        | 65 |
| P. R. Johnson, c. G. Wilson, b. R. Kilner . . . | 7  |
| T. C. Lowry, c. Leyland, b. Macaulay . . .      | 10 |
| R. A. Ingle, l.-b.-w., b. R. Kilner . . .       | 3  |
| G. F. Earle, b. Macaulay . . .                  | 0  |
| Hunt, b. R. Kilner . . .                        | 3  |
| R. C. Robertson-Glasgow, b. Macaulay . . .      | 6  |
| J. J. Bridges, not out . . .                    | 0  |
| Bye, 1; n.-b., 1 . . .                          | 2  |

Total . . . . . 134

#### Second Innings.

|                                                  |    |
|--------------------------------------------------|----|
| J. C. W. MacBryan, c. Dolphin, b. Macaulay . . . | 10 |
| J. C. White, c. N. Kilner, b. Macaulay . . .     | 13 |
| M. D. Lyon, c. and b. Macaulay . . .             | 6  |
| Young, c. Robinson, b. Macaulay . . .            | 15 |
| P. R. Johnson, c. Holmes, b. R. Kilner . . .     | 4  |
| T. C. Lowry, b. R. Kilner . . .                  | 0  |
| R. A. Ingle, c. Robinson, b. R. Kilner . . .     | 3  |
| G. F. Earle, c. Holmes, b. Macaulay . . .        | 29 |
| Hunt, b. Robinson . . .                          | 23 |
| R. C. Robertson-Glasgow, not out . . .           | 16 |
| J. J. Bridges, b. Robinson . . .                 | 4  |
| Leg-bye . . .                                    | 1  |

Total . . . . . 124

### YORKSHIRE.

#### First Innings.

|                                         |    |
|-----------------------------------------|----|
| Holmes, st. Lyon, b. White . . .        | 46 |
| Sutcliffe, c. Earle, b. White . . .     | 13 |
| Oldroyd, b. White . . .                 | 26 |
| Leyland, b. Bridges . . .               | 17 |
| Robinson, b. Robertson-Glasgow . . .    | 10 |
| Kilner (R.), l.-b.-w., b. Bridges . . . | 6  |
| Kilner (N.), l.-b.-w., b. Bridges . . . | 4  |
| Macaulay, c. Lowry, b. Bridges . . .    | 0  |

# The British Dominions Year Book 1924

|                                     |            |
|-------------------------------------|------------|
| G. Wilson, b. Bridges . . . . .     | 0          |
| E. R. Wilson, not out . . . . .     | 16         |
| Dolphin, b. White . . . . .         | 21         |
| Byes, 9, l.b., 2, n.b., 5 . . . . . | 16         |
| <b>Total</b> . . . . .              | <b>180</b> |

## Second Innings.

|                                          |    |
|------------------------------------------|----|
| Holmes, c. Robertson-Glasgow, b. White   | 35 |
| Sutcliffe, b. Robertson-Glasgow . . . .  | 26 |
| Leyland, not out . . . . .               | 3  |
| Robinson, c. Robertson-Glasgow, b. White | 2  |
| Kilner (R.), not out . . . . .           | 13 |
| N.b. . . . .                             | 2  |

Total (3 wks.) . . . . . 81

## BOWLING ANALYSIS.

### SOMERSET.

#### First Innings.

|                        | O.   | M. | R. | w. |
|------------------------|------|----|----|----|
| Robinson . . . . .     | 16   | 2  | 26 | 2  |
| Macaulay . . . . .     | 26.3 | 5  | 47 | 4  |
| Kilner (R.) . . . . .  | 30   | 13 | 40 | 4  |
| E. R. Wilson . . . . . | 12   | 5  | 19 | 0  |

#### Second Innings.

|                       | O.   | M. | R. | w. |
|-----------------------|------|----|----|----|
| Robinson . . . . .    | 15.3 | 2  | 38 | 2  |
| Macaulay . . . . .    | 26   | 7  | 65 | 5  |
| Kilner (R.) . . . . . | 24   | 16 | 20 | 3  |

### YORKSHIRE.

#### First Innings.

|                             | O.   | M. | R. | w. |
|-----------------------------|------|----|----|----|
| Robertson-Glasgow . . . . . | 17   | 5  | 42 | 1  |
| Bridges . . . . .           | 19   | 5  | 59 | 5  |
| White . . . . .             | 25.2 | 7  | 57 | 4  |
| Young . . . . .             | 7    | 6  | 1  | 0  |
| Hunt . . . . .              | 1    | 0  | 5  | 0  |

#### Second Innings.

|                             | O.  | M. | R. | w. |
|-----------------------------|-----|----|----|----|
| Earle . . . . .             | 4   | 2  | 6  | 0  |
| White . . . . .             | 13  | 6  | 13 | 2  |
| Robertson-Glasgow . . . . . | 6.5 | 1  | 34 | 1  |
| Young . . . . .             | 3   | 0  | 20 | 0  |
| Hunt . . . . .              | 1   | 0  | 6  | 0  |

## AVERAGES OF THE LEADERS.

### YORKSHIRE.

Matches played, 32.—Won, 25; lost, 1; drawn, 6; won on first innings, 4; lost on first innings, 1; no result on first innings, 1.

#### Batting.

|                        | In. | Rns.  | sc.  | H. T. | Aver. |
|------------------------|-----|-------|------|-------|-------|
| Sutcliffe . . . . .    | 42  | 1,453 | 139  | 2     | 36.32 |
| Holmes . . . . .       | 44  | 1,546 | 199  | 1     | 35.95 |
| Kilner (R.) . . . . .  | 38  | 1,126 | 79   | 6     | 35.18 |
| Bell . . . . .         | 5   | 125   | 54   | 1     | 31.25 |
| Rhodes . . . . .       | 38  | 1,023 | 126  | 5     | 31.00 |
| Oldroyd . . . . .      | 45  | 1,237 | 194  | 4     | 30.17 |
| Leyland . . . . .      | 46  | 1,006 | 89   | 11    | 28.74 |
| Kilner (N.) . . . . .  | 13  | 272   | 102* | 1     | 22.66 |
| Waddington . . . . .   | 22  | 292   | 64*  | 9     | 22.46 |
| Macaulay . . . . .     | 29  | 453   | 60   | 7     | 20.59 |
| Robinson . . . . .     | 37  | 628   | 96   | 5     | 19.62 |
| E. R. Wilson . . . . . | 6   | 73    | 24   | 1     | 14.60 |
| Dolphin . . . . .      | 27  | 185   | 47   | 8     | 9.73  |
| G. Wilson . . . . .    | 23  | 148   | 57   | 2     | 7.04  |

The following also batted:—Allen, 1; Brooke, 0; Drake, 10 and 1; J. S. Stephenson, 28.

\*Not out.

## BOWLING.

|                        | O.      | M.  | R.    | w.  | Aver. |
|------------------------|---------|-----|-------|-----|-------|
| Rhodes . . . . .       | 833.4   | 315 | 1,353 | 120 | 11.27 |
| Kilner (R.) . . . . .  | 1,071.3 | 455 | 1,586 | 139 | 11.41 |
| Macaulay . . . . .     | 939.3   | 227 | 1,989 | 149 | 13.34 |
| Robinson . . . . .     | 693.3   | 214 | 1,343 | 95  | 14.13 |
| Waddington . . . . .   | 453.3   | 107 | 1,110 | 57  | 19.47 |
| E. R. Wilson . . . . . | 163     | 74  | 261   | 10  | 26.10 |
| Drake . . . . .        | 29      | 9   | 66    | 1   | 66.00 |

## SOMERSET.

Matches played, 24.—Won, 9 lost, 11 drawn, 4; won on first innings, 1; lost on first innings, 3.

#### Batting.

|                              | In. | Rns.  | sc. | H. T. | Aver. |
|------------------------------|-----|-------|-----|-------|-------|
| J. W. C. MacBryan . . . . .  | 42  | 1,507 | 148 | 2     | 37.67 |
| M. D. Lyon . . . . .         | 35  | 1,109 | 136 | 2     | 33.60 |
| P. R. Johnson . . . . .      | 34  | 845   | 106 | 1     | 25.60 |
| T. C. Lowry . . . . .        | 18  | 420   | 77  | 1     | 24.70 |
| Young . . . . .              | 44  | 927   | 125 | 1     | 21.55 |
| S. G. U. Considine . . . . . | 16  | 277   | 59  | 3     | 21.30 |
| G. F. Earle . . . . .        | 17  | 355   | 111 | 0     | 20.88 |
| A. E. S. Rippon . . . . .    | 14  | 289   | 110 | 0     | 20.64 |
| J. Daniell . . . . .         | 41  | 755   | 71* | 4     | 20.40 |
| K. G. Blaikie . . . . .      | 12  | 217   | 73  | 0     | 18.08 |
| Jones . . . . .              | 30  | 429   | 70  | 2     | 15.32 |
| J. C. White . . . . .        | 38  | 549   | 60  | 2     | 15.25 |
| Hunt . . . . .               | 23  | 280   | 66* | 4     | 14.73 |
| R. A. Ingle . . . . .        | 5   | 64    | 64  | 0     | 12.80 |

R. C. Robertson-Glasgow . . . . . 14 180 31 2 10.83  
Robson . . . . . 20 154 39\* 4 9.62  
J. J. Bridges . . . . . 34 167 33\* 16 9.27  
C. A. Winter . . . . . 11 74 21 3 9.25  
A. G. Marshall . . . . . 3 12 10 0 4.00  
The following also batted:—C. P. Ewens, 17, 6\*, 5, and 3\*; T. R. S. Francis, 0; the Hon. M. Herbert, 16 and 5; the Rev. F. E. Spurway, 10 and 3; A. E. Thompson, 0\*; W. S. Whiting, 9, 5\*, 4, and 0\*.

\*Not out.

#### Bowling.

|                                   | O.      | M.  | R.    | w.  | Aver. |
|-----------------------------------|---------|-----|-------|-----|-------|
| J. C. White . . . . .             | 1,042.4 | 340 | 2,177 | 141 | 15.43 |
| R. C. Robertson-Glasgow . . . . . | 300.4   | 61  | 907   | 53  | 17.11 |
| J. J. Bridges . . . . .           | 694.1   | 159 | 1,789 | 77  | 23.23 |
| G. F. Earle . . . . .             | 147     | 18  | 515   | 19  | 27.10 |
| W. S. Whiting . . . . .           | 109.3   | 16  | 363   | 13  | 27.92 |
| Young . . . . .                   | 272.2   | 53  | 770   | 24  | 32.08 |
| Hunt . . . . .                    | 154     | 35  | 447   | 13  | 34.38 |
| C. A. Winter . . . . .            | 43      | 7   | 133   | 3   | 44.33 |
| Robson . . . . .                  | 390     | 105 | 955   | 20  | 47.75 |
| M. D. Lyon . . . . .              | 13      | 1   | 66    | 1   | 66.00 |
| K. G. Blaikie . . . . .           | 43      | 12  | 165   | 2   | 82.50 |

The following also bowled:—J. Daniell, 0.5—0—4—0; T. E. S. Francis, 4—0—19—0; T. C. Lowry, 1—0—5—0; A. E. S. Rippon, 7—2—17—1.

## FINAL POSITIONS.

Final positions of Counties in Championship.

|                      | W. L. | Per. | 1st. | 1st. | Pos. | Pts. | cent.     |
|----------------------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|-----------|
|                      | P.    | W.   | L.   | ins. | ins. | Pts. | age.      |
| Yorkshire . . . . .  | 32    | 25   | 1    | 4    | 1    | 155  | 133 85.80 |
| Notts . . . . .      | 26    | 15   | 8    | 5    | 2    | 125  | 85 68.00  |
| Lancashire . . . . . | 30    | 15   | 2    | 6    | 6    | 145  | 87 60.00  |
| Surrey . . . . .     | 23    | 11   | 2    | 6    | 4    | 115  | 67 58.26  |
| Kent . . . . .       | 28    | 15   | 9    | 0    | 3    | 135  | 75 55.55  |
| Sussex . . . . .     | 30    | 15   | 8    | 2    | 5    | 150  | 79 52.66  |
| Hants . . . . .      | 28    | 10   | 8    | 6    | 3    | 135  | 62 45.92  |
| Middlesex . . . . .  | 22    | 7    | 7    | 5    | 3    | 110  | 45 40.90  |
| Somerset . . . . .   | 24    | 9    | 11   | 1    | 3    | 120  | 47 39.16  |

|               |   |    |   |   |     |    |       |
|---------------|---|----|---|---|-----|----|-------|
| Derbyshire 22 | 4 | 7  | 6 | 4 | 105 | 32 | 30.47 |
| Gloucester 28 | 7 | 16 | 3 | 2 | 140 | 41 | 29.29 |
| Warwick 26    | 6 | 12 | 3 | 4 | 125 | 36 | 28.80 |
| Essex 26      | 6 | 11 | 3 | 6 | 130 | 36 | 27.69 |
| Leicester 24  | 5 | 13 | 4 | 2 | 120 | 33 | 27.50 |
| Worcester 26  | 5 | 16 | 1 | 4 | 130 | 27 | 20.76 |
| Glamorgan 24  | 2 | 17 | 2 | 3 | 120 | 14 | 11.66 |
| Northants 22  | 2 | 16 | 1 | 3 | 110 | 12 | 10.90 |

FINAL AVERAGES.

Batting.

|                    | In. | R.    | M. in | T. | n.o. | Aver. |
|--------------------|-----|-------|-------|----|------|-------|
| Hendren . . .      | 51  | 3,010 | 200*  | 12 |      | 77.17 |
| Mead . . .         | 52  | 2,604 | 222   | 8  |      | 59.18 |
| G. Challenor(W.I.) | 35  | 1,556 | 155*  | 6  |      | 51.86 |
| Makepeace . .      | 53  | 2,310 | 203   | 6  |      | 49.14 |
| J. W. Hearne .     | 36  | 1,519 | 232   | 4  |      | 47.46 |
| L. G. Crawley .    | 20  | 801   | 161   | 2  |      | 44.50 |
| Payton . . .       | 43  | 1,570 | 154   | 7  |      | 43.61 |
| Hallows . . .      | 40  | 1,438 | 170*  | 7  |      | 43.57 |
| J. L. Bryan . .    | 23  | 940   | 236   | 1  |      | 42.72 |
| Sandham . . .      | 52  | 1,894 | 200   | 6  |      | 41.17 |
| Dipper . . .       | 57  | 2,048 | 252*  | 6  |      | 40.15 |
| Holmes . . .       | 54  | 2,001 | 199   | 3  |      | 39.23 |
| Ducat . . .        | 44  | 1,626 | 134   | 2  |      | 38.71 |
| D. R. Jardine .    | 28  | 916   | 137   | 4  |      | 38.16 |
| J. Gunn . . .      | 34  | 1,173 | 116*  | 3  |      | 37.83 |
| W. W. Hill-Wood    | 30  | 1,032 | 116   | 0  |      | 36.06 |
| Whysall . . .      | 42  | 1,478 | 148   | 1  |      | 36.04 |
| Sutcliffe . . .    | 60  | 2,220 | 139   | 6  |      | 41.11 |
| F. E. Woolley .    | 56  | 2,091 | 270   | 6  |      | 41.00 |
| Hobbs . . .        | 59  | 2,087 | 136   | 4  |      | 37.94 |
| E. Tyldesley .     | 60  | 2,040 | 236   | 6  |      | 37.77 |

\*Signifies not out.

Bowling.

|                 | O.      | M.  | R.    | W.  | Aver. |
|-----------------|---------|-----|-------|-----|-------|
| Rhodes . . .    | 920     | 345 | 1,547 | 134 | 11.54 |
| N. S. M. . .    |         |     |       |     |       |
| Atkinson . .    | 75.3    | 26  | 147   | 12  | 12.25 |
| Kilner (R.) .   | 1,259.5 | 507 | 2,040 | 158 | 12.91 |
| Capt. J. S. . . |         |     |       |     |       |
| Hyndson . . .   | 51.3    | 16  | 133   | 10  | 13.30 |
| Macaulay . .    | 1,042.4 | 245 | 2,297 | 166 | 13.83 |
| Tate . . .      | 1,608.5 | 331 | 3,061 | 219 | 13.97 |
| Matthews . .    | 575.5   | 115 | 1,760 | 115 | 15.30 |
| J. C. White .   | 1,111.4 | 335 | 2,294 | 148 | 15.50 |
| Tyldesley (R.)  | 945.4   | 303 | 2,174 | 140 | 16.52 |
| G. Francis . .  |         |     |       |     |       |
| (W. Indies) .   | 505.5   | 119 | 1,278 | 82  | 15.58 |
| Robinson . .    | 748.3   | 222 | 1,490 | 96  | 15.61 |
| Horsley . . .   | 447     | 142 | 1,019 | 63  | 16.17 |
| Bestwick . .    | 669.2   | 168 | 1,483 | 91  | 16.29 |
| R.H. Bettington | 303.4   | 60  | 1,010 | 61  | 16.55 |
| Freeman (Kent)  | 990     | 262 | 2,642 | 157 | 16.82 |
| Parkin . . .    | 1,356.2 | 356 | 3,543 | 200 | 16.94 |
| A. E. R. . .    |         |     |       |     |       |
| Gilligan . . .  | 1,075.4 | 235 | 2,853 | 163 | 17.50 |
| Geary . . .     | 985     | 302 | 2,191 | 122 | 17.95 |
| Parker . . .    | 1,420.2 | 520 | 3,229 | 172 | 18.77 |
| F. E. Woolley . | 895.3   | 307 | 1,938 | 101 | 19.18 |
| P.G.H. Fender   | 1,324.2 | 307 | 3,558 | 178 | 19.98 |

TEST MATCHES.

Johannesburg, December 28th.—South Africa beat England in the first of the Test Matches by 168 runs.

This match was the eleventh played by England since the war. Australia had beaten us in eight games; five in Australia in 1920-21 and three at home, the remaining two with Warwick Armstrong's team, at Manchester and the Oval, being left drawn.

Capetown, January 4th.—There was a thrilling finish to the Second Test Match, the M.C.C. winning a great game, by one wicket. This was England's first success since the war.

Durban, January 22nd.—The third test match resulted in a drawn game. England had batted during the greater part of the first two days, and with no cricket possible on the third day owing to rain, it was never likely that a definite result would be obtained. South Africa scored 368 in their first innings in reply to England's score of 428 and at the close of play, England had made eleven runs for the loss of one wicket in their second innings.

Johannesburg, February 13th.—The fourth test match ended in a draw. When stumps were finally pulled up, the home side with six wickets to fall needed 79 runs.

Durban, February 22nd.—The M.C.C. team won the final test match and the rubber, their victory being gained by 100 runs. Albert Charles Russell, 35, of Essex, made scores of 140 and 111. He is the only English batsman who has ever obtained two separate hundreds in an international match.

OXFORD V. CAMBRIDGE.

Lords, July 10th.—Oxford gained their 36th victory over Cambridge by an innings and 227 runs.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY. First Innings.

|                                             |     |
|---------------------------------------------|-----|
| G. T. S. Stevens (University Coll. Schl.),  |     |
| c. Lowry, b. Wright . . .                   | 14  |
| C. H. Taylor (Westminster), c. Lowry,       |     |
| b. Wright . . .                             | 109 |
| D. R. Jardine (Winchester), c. Ashton,      |     |
| b. Wright . . .                             | 39  |
| B. H. Lyon (Rugby), l.b.w., b. Tomlinson    | 14  |
| H. O. Hopkins (Australia), run out .        | 42  |
| C. H. Knott (Tonbridge), b. Tomlinson .     | 42  |
| R. H. Bettington (New South Wales), l.b.w., |     |
| b. Wright . . .                             | 12  |
| R. C. Robertson-Glasgow (Charterhouse),     |     |
| c. Allen, b. Enthoven . . .                 | 53  |
| E. P. Hewetson (Shrewsbury), c. Aird, b.    |     |
| Ashton . . .                                | 57  |
| T. B. Raikes (Winchester), c. Aird, b.      |     |
| Enthoven . . .                              | 16  |
| M. Patten (Winchester), not out . . .       | 0   |
| Extras . . .                                | 24  |

Total . . . . . 422

Bowling Analysis.—First Innings: Allen, 0 for 37, Wright 4 for 113, Enthoven 2 for 45, Ashton 1 for 92, Tomlinson 2 for 79, Aird 0 for 32.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY.—First Innings.

|                                          |    |
|------------------------------------------|----|
| C. T. Bennett (Harrow), b. Stevens . . . | 5  |
| H. F. Bagnall (Harrow), b. Stevens . . . | 9  |
| G. O. Allen (Eton), b. Raikes . . .      | 5  |
| T. C. Lowry (New Zealand), c. Lyon, b.   |    |
| Stevens . . .                            | 1  |
| C. T. Ashton (Winchester), b. Stevens .  | 15 |
| R. Aird (Eton), c. Lyon, b. Stevens . .  | 1  |
| L. G. Crawley (Harrow), st. Patten, b.   |    |
| Bettington . . .                         | 1  |
| H. J. Enthoven (Harrow), b. Bettington . | 2  |
| W. J. V. Tomlinson (Felsted), c. Knott,  |    |
| b. Bettington . . .                      | 4  |
| N. B. Sherwell (Tonbridge), c. and b.    |    |
| Stevens . . .                            | 5  |
| P. A. Wright (Wellingborough), not out . | 1  |
| Extras . . .                             | 4  |

Total . . . . . 59

Bowling Analysis.—First Innings: Robertson-Glasgow 0 for 4, Raikes 1 for 12, Stevens 6 for 20, Bettington 3 for 19.

Second Innings.

|                                           |   |
|-------------------------------------------|---|
| C. T. Bennett (Harrow), b. Bettington . . | 5 |
| L. G. Crawley (Harrow), c. Bettington, b. |   |

|                                                        |    |
|--------------------------------------------------------|----|
| R.-Glasgow                                             | 20 |
| C. T. Ashton (Winchester), b. Bettington.              | 21 |
| T. C. Lowry (New Zealand), c. Stevens, b. Bettington   | 3  |
| H. F. Bagnall (Harrow), b. Bettington                  | 4  |
| R. Aird (Eton), b. Bettington                          | 5  |
| G. O. Allen (Eton), l.b.w., b. Stevens                 | 28 |
| H. J. Enthoven (Harrow), c. and b. Bettington          | 16 |
| W. J. V. Tomlinson (Felsted), c. Taylor, b. Bettington | 19 |
| N. B. Sherwell (Tonbridge), b. Bettington              | 0  |
| P. A. Wright (Wellingborough), not out.                | 5  |
| Extras                                                 | 10 |

Total . . . . . 136

Bowling Analysis.—Second Innings: Robertson-Glasgow 1 for 22, Raikes 0 for 18, Bettington 8 for 66, Stevens 1 for 20.

## GENTLEMEN V. PLAYERS.

Lords, July 20th.—Drawn match.

|                                         |     |
|-----------------------------------------|-----|
| GENTLEMEN.—First Innings.               |     |
| J. L. Bryan, b. Kilner                  | 26  |
| G. T. S. Stevens, b. Kilner             | 122 |
| M. D. Lyon, c. Smith, b. Tate           | 120 |
| A. W. Carr, c. and b. Woolley           | 25  |
| A. P. F. Chapman, c. Smith, b. Kilner   | 8   |
| T. C. Lowry, l.b.w., b. Woolley         | 2   |
| P. G. H. Fender, c. Hendren, b. Woolley | 41  |
| F. T. Mann, c. and b. Hearne            | 35  |
| A. E. R. Gilligan, c. Kilner, b. Tate   | 25  |
| J. C. White, not out                    | 13  |
| G. M. Loudon, not out.                  | 5   |
| Extras                                  | 29  |

Total (9 wks., dec.) . . . . . 451

Bowling Analysis.—First Innings: Howell 0 for 97, Tate 2 for 76, Parkin 0 for 62, Kilner 3 for 66, Hearne 1 for 58, Woolley 3 for 63.

## PLAYERS.

First Innings.

|                                    |    |
|------------------------------------|----|
| Hobbs, l.b.w., b. Loudon           | 6  |
| Sutcliffe, b. Gilligan             | 3  |
| Hearne, b. Loudon                  | 69 |
| Mead, b. Lyon, b. Stevens          | 35 |
| Hendren, b. Fender                 | 8  |
| Woolley, c. Gilligan, b. White     | 41 |
| Smith, c. Fender, b. Loudon        | 28 |
| Kilner (R.), c. White, b. Stevens  | 8  |
| Tate, c. Lowry, b. Loudon          | 11 |
| Parkin, not out                    | 6  |
| Howell (H.), c. Fender, b. Loudon. | 0  |
| Extras                             | 13 |

Total . . . . . 228

Second Innings.

|                             |    |
|-----------------------------|----|
| Hobbs, c. Lowry, b. Stevens | 20 |
| Sutcliffe, not out          | 78 |
| Hearne, not out             | 79 |
| Extras                      | 13 |

Total (1 wkt.) . . . . . 190

Bowling Analysis.—First Innings: Gilligan 1 for 69, Loudon 5 for 49, Fender 1 for 53, Stevens 2 for 21, White 1 for 18, Second Innings: Gilligan 0 for 29, Loudon 0 for 17, Stevens 1 for 52, Fender 0 for 45, White 0 for 24, Chapman 0 for 9, Mann 0 for 1.

## ETON V. HARROW.

Lords, July 13th, 14th.—The 94th match between Eton and Harrow brought together an enormous crowd of all sorts and conditions of people. A new record was set up by Eton making 502 runs in an innings. This was

mainly due to 159 by E. W. Dawson and a level 100 by R. H. Cobbold. It was the third occasion when two centuries had been hit in a single innings, and the first time three centuries had been made in a game.

## A DRAWN GAME.

### HARROW.

First Innings.

|                                                       |    |
|-------------------------------------------------------|----|
| K. E. Crawley, b. Kennerley-Rumford                   | 3  |
| J. V. Hermon, run out.                                | 28 |
| J. C. Butterworth, run out                            | 13 |
| P. H. Stewart Brown, run out                          | 14 |
| R. E. C. Butterworth, c. Hurley, b. Kennerley-Rumford | 56 |
| M. F. Kemp, c. Thursby, b. Bridgeman                  | 22 |
| T. Bulloch, b. Kennerley-Rumford                      | 10 |
| J. H. N. Foster, c. Dawson, b. Incledon-Webber        | 75 |
| F. M. Butcher, c. Cobbold, b. Bridgeman               | 19 |
| C. M. Andraea, b. Cobbold                             | 22 |
| G. O. Brigstocke, not out                             | 47 |
| Extras                                                | 13 |

Total . . . . . 322

Second Innings.

|                                                |     |
|------------------------------------------------|-----|
| K. E. Crawley, c. and b. Incledon-Webber       | 7   |
| J. V. Hermon, c. Kennerley-Rumford, b. Webber  | 6   |
| J. C. Butterworth, b. Bridgeman                | 12  |
| P. H. Stewart Brown, not out                   | 102 |
| R. E. C. Butterworth, c. Cobbold, b. Bridgeman | 22  |
| M. F. Kemp, c. Kennerley-Rumford, b. Webber    | 18  |
| T. Bulloch, c. Webber, b. Newman               | 30  |
| J. H. N. Foster, c. Corbin, b. Newman          | 10  |
| C. M. Andraea, not out.                        | 2   |
| Extras                                         | 12  |

Total (7 wks.). . . . . 216

### ETON.

First Innings.

|                                                      |     |
|------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| E. W. Dawson, b. Brigstocke.                         | 159 |
| W. P. Thursby, c. Butterworth, b. Andraea            | 57  |
| F. G. B. Arkwright, c. and b. Crawley                | 31  |
| G. M. Crossman, st. Stewart-Brown, b. Crawley        | 4   |
| G. S. Incledon-Webber, b. Crawley                    | 8   |
| J. E. H. Hurley, c. and b. Butcher                   | 1   |
| R. G. M. Kennerley-Rumford, c. Foster, b. Brigstocke | 23  |
| R. H. Cobbold, c. and b. Andraea                     | 100 |
| G. C. Newman, not out.                               | 82  |
| M. R. Bridgeman, b. Andraea                          | 0   |
| T. M. Bateson, c. Stewart-Brown, b. Brigstocke       | 5   |
| Extras                                               | 32  |

Total . . . . . 502

Bowling Analysis.

Harrow.—First Innings: Bridgeman, 2 for 60, Kennerley Rumford 3 for 75, Bateson 0 for 23, Cobbold 1 for 71, Incledon-Webber 1 for 29, Newman, 0 for 46, Hurley 0 for 5.

Second Innings: Bridgeman, 2 for 53, Webber 3 for 77, Cobbold 0 for 26, Bateson 0 for 16, Hurley 0 for 9, Newman, 2 for 13, Kennerley Rumford 0 for 9.

Eton.—First Innings: Hermon 0 for 49, Butterworth 0 for 93, Andraea 3 for 102, Bucher 1 for 44, Brigstocke 3 for 82, Crowley 3 for 66, Stewart-Brown 0 for 23, Bulloch 0 for 11.

## WONDERFUL BOWLING.

Lords, August 20th.—In the Test match trial game between England and the Rest of England,



Maurice Tate, of Sussex, accomplished one of the most remarkable bowling feats seen in first-class cricket for several seasons. When the Rest had scored 200 for five wickets, his analysis read: One over and five balls, five wickets, no runs. Tate's figures, remarkable though they were, had often been beaten. At one period of an innings, W. G. Grace, Arthur Mold, J. W. Hearne, and J. H. Kin, had all dismissed seven batsmen without a run being scored from them.

## HENDREN'S GREAT FEAT

Scarborough, September 8th.—In the Gentlemen v. Players match, the outstanding feature was the century innings by Hendren, the Middlesex batsman, who is at the head of the first-class batting averages. This was Hendren's thirteenth century in the season, and he thus equals the record held jointly by C. B. Fry (1901) and Tom Hayward (1906). On the previous day, Hobbs played the 104th century innings of his career, thus equaling the record of his old colleague, Tom Hayward.

## CROQUET.

### CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Rochampton, July 14th. Finals:—Capt. H. W. J. Snell beat Miss D. D. Steel, minus 18 plus 26, plus 26.

Ladies' Championship.—Mrs. C. W. C. Strickland beat Mrs. W. H. Hope, plus 18, plus 23.

Mixed Doubles Championship.—Lord Tollemache and Miss D. D. Steel beat Col. C. E. Wilson and Miss E. Steel, plus 7, plus 18.

### GOLD MEDALS.

Rochampton, June 26th.—Results of the Gold Medals Meeting:—

Gentlemen's Gold Medal.—P. D. Mathews beat H. W. Whichelo, plus 26, plus 26.

Doubles.—Thos. Dickson and Miss D. D. Steel beat P. D. Mathews and Lord Tollemache, plus 25, plus 26.

Handicap Singles.—R. Leatham Jones (½) beat "J. Essie" (0) by 4.

### THE CHAMPION CUP.

Rochampton, September 14th.—Miss D. D. Steel retained the Champion Cup after a tie with Miss N. S. L. Gilchrist.

### LADIES' CROQUET CHAMPION.

The Ladies' Champion Cup was won at Rochampton yesterday by Mrs. A. C. Ionides, after a tie with Miss Evelyn Steel.

## CYCLING.

### MOTOR CYCLING.

### PUBLIC SCHOOLS CHAMPIONSHIPS.

January 13th.—The Motor Cycling Championships of the Public Schools, both team and individual, were won by Rugby, over Buckinghamshire roads. The course was 32 miles and had to be covered twice by the competitors.

### 25 MILES CHAMPIONSHIP.

Long Eaton, June 16th.—There were twenty-one starters in the Twenty-five Miles N.C.U. Championship Race, the event being marred by a serious spill in the first lap, which brought down eleven men, one of the competitors having his arms broken. Only five finished, the winner being Albert White, of the Rover Club, while J. H. Wyll, Dolly, was second and H. Lee, Kentish Wheelers, third. White won by a

length in 63 min. 44 1/5 secs., and one lap divided second and third. The time was the best recorded for the race for the past twelve years. White won in 1922 in 70 min. 3 4/5 sec., and in 1920 in 68 min. 24 1/5 sec.

### ONE MILE CHAMPIONSHIP.

Herne Hill, July 28th.—H. E. Fuller, Marlborough A.C., gained the One Mile Championship in 2 min. 44 sec. Last furlong, 13 sec.

### FIVE MILE CHAMPIONSHIP.

Herne Hill, July 28th.—H. H. Lee, Kentish Wheelers crossed the line three quarters of a lap ahead and won in 11 min. 57 2/5 sec.

### LANDS END TO LONDON.

August 18th.—Maurice G. Selbach, of the Unity Cycling Club, beat the Land's End to London unpaced bicycle record by covering the distance in 17 hr. 47 min., four minutes better than the previous best time recognised by the Road Records Association, accomplished by C. F. Davey, Vegetarian C.C.

### WORLD'S ROAD CHAMPIONSHIP.

Zurich, August 25th.—The Zurich-Basle-Zurich road race over a course of 160 kilometres resulted in a win for Ferrario (Italy). Time, 5 hrs. 23 sec. Of the English competitors, Wilson finished eighteenth, Marsh twenty-fifth, Burkill twenty-eighth, and Hunter twenty-ninth.

### CYCLING CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Herne Hill, September 1st.—Results of the eleventh annual meeting of Cycling champions:—

Half-Mile Invitation Scratch Race.—A. Theaker (West Lincoln C.C.), Time, 1 min. 21 1/5 sec.

550 Yards Cycle Handicap.—S. J. Day (Great Eastern C.C.), Time, 37 sec.

One Mile "Ordinary" Scratch Race.—G. D. Woodley (Catford C.C.), Time, 2 min. 58 sec.

Three Miles Point-to-Point Race (for "Lasso" Cup).—C. A. Alden (Kentish Wheelers), 16 points.

One Mile Open Tandem Handicap.—T. Harvey and J. H. Bennett (Catford C.C.), 100 yards. Time, 1 min. 53 3/5 sec.

Ten Lap Team Pursuit Race.—England's 1923 Championship Road Team. Time, 6 min. 34 3/5 sec.

25 Miles Invitation Tandem-Paced Race.—W. S. Almond (Liverpool Century Road Club). Time, 52 min. 47 3/5 sec.

### A RECORD.

September 27th.—C. F. Davey (Vegetarian Cycling Club) lowered the unpaced road record for the distance from London to Bath and back —213 miles—by 7 min. 38 sec. Davey's time was 11 hrs. 47 min. 32 sec.

## FENCING.

### AMATEUR SABRE CHAMPIONSHIP.

Bertrand's Academy, April 27th.—Mr. Edgar Schigman, the Amateur Foil Champion, 1906 and 1907, and Eppe Champion 1906, won the Sabre Championship, after a tie with Lieutenant C. A. Kershaw, R.N. He is the only British swordsman who has won the title with all three weapons.

### EPEE CHAMPIONSHIP.

Lincoln's Inn, July. Twelve competitors took part, and at half-time C. C. Drake, R.A.C., headed the list, having received only one defeat. In the second half, the fighting was a little

keener, and M. D. Holt, London F.C., secured the title with 3 defeats, G. M. Burt, McPherson's, the holder, C. C. Drake, and G. B. Notley, R.A.C., tying for second place with 4 defeats each

## AN INTERESTING TEST MATCH.

Hotel Cecil, July 19th-23rd.—Great Britain won a victory over America in the third and final Test Match, the score in the sabre encounter being ten bouts to six. She thus secured possession of the Thompson Trophy in the second biennial contest. The total aggregate of wins for the whole series was:—Great Britain, 24; U.S.A., 22.

## FLYING.

### THE KING'S CUP.

Hendon, July 14th.—Results of the 810 miles air race round Britain for the King's Cup.—

1.—Mr. F. T. Courtney.—Siddeley-Siskin, with a 325 h.p. Siddeley Jaguar engine, entered by Mr. J. D. Siddeley. Time, 5 hrs. 25 min. 27 sec.

2.—Mr. Alan J. Cobham.—D.H.9 with a 450 h.p. Napier Lion engine, entered by Mr. George Robey. Time, 5 hrs. 35 min. 25 sec.

3.—Captain H. S. Broad.—D.H.9c, with a 230 h.p. Siddeley Puma engine, entered by Mr. Harry Tate. Time, 7 hrs. 20 min. 59 sec. Four others—Captain F. L. Barnard, D.H. 4a; Major H. Hemming, D.H. 37; Captain A. F. Muir, D.H. 9½; Flt.-Lieut. W. H. Longton, Sopwith Gnu—also finished the circuit in the order of their names. Mr. Courtney's average speed during the 2 days' race was 149 miles an hour. At one time he flew at a height of 8,000 feet. He also made an almost clean sweep of various subsidiary prizes, £100 by the "Daily Telegraph" for the quickest time, Lord Invernairn's Cup (to the pilot of the first machine at Glasgow), and prizes from the Bristol Aeroplane Company, the Corporation of Glasgow, and the "Newcastle Chronicle."

The other prize winners were: Mr. Cobham, who, by coming home second, secured for Mr. George Robey, the entrant of his mount, the £100 offered by Sir Charles Wakefield; Mr. L. C. Carter, who made the fastest handicap time between Glasgow and Manchester, won for Sir Wm. Joynson-Hicks the "Manchester Guardian" prize.

The King's Cup was presented to Mr. J. D. Siddeley, by the Duke of Sutherland, Under-Secretary for Air.

### THE AIR DERBY.

Croydon, August 6th.—Thirteen aeroplanes started from the Aerodrome in the Ariel Derby round London—a distance of 200 miles. The course was via Brooklands, Hertford and West Thurrock, two circuits being made. There were two prizes—one for the handicap winner and one for the fastest time. L. L. Carter won the latter by completing the two circuits of the course in 1 hr. 2 min. 23 sec.—an average speed of 192.4 miles per hour. He piloted a Napier Lion of 450 h.p., and crossed the line at 220 miles an hour. He was much exhausted on alighting. This is by far the best time for the Ariel Derby. Flight-Lieutenant Longton was second, his net time being 1 hr. 13 min. 9 3/5 secs., and Captain Barnard third. Last year's winner, J. B. James, did 176 miles per hour. In the handicap the first three, Captain Hammersley (first), H. H. Perry and Flight-lieutenant Woodhouse, finished within 1 min. 44 sec., of each other. Captain Hammersley's time for the entire flight was 1 hr. 49 min. 16 secs.

## THE SCHNEIDER CUP.

Cowes, September 28th.—Flying at 177 miles an hour, Lieutenant Rittenhouse won the international seaplane race and lifted the Schneider Cup for America. Captain H. C. Biard, Britain's one representative, last year's winner, was third. The course was 214 miles. (186 sea miles). Winners time, 1 hr. 12 min. 26 4/5 secs.

## £1,000 CONTEST.

Lympe Aerodrome, Hythe, October 13th.—The following were the chief results:—

"Daily Mail" £1,000 Prize and Duke of Sutherland's £500 Prize.—A tie for first place between J. H. James, A.N.E.C. monoplane, and Flight-Lieutenant Longton, Wren monoplane, 87.5 miles per gallon.

Speed Competition, £500 Prize.—1, Captain Macmillan, Parnall Pixie, 76.1 m.p.h.

£300 Prize for Total Mileage.—1, B. Hinckler, Avro monoplane, 1,000 miles.

£200 Altitude Prize.—M. W. Piercey, A.N.E.C. monoplane, 14,400 ft.

It has been decided to present an additional prize of £100 to Flying-Officer Hamersley, who was a close second, having risen 13,856 ft.

## FOOTBALL.

P. W. D. L. F. A.

Goals. Pts.

### THE LEAGUE

|                        |      |    |    |    |    |    |    |
|------------------------|------|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| Div. I., Liverpool     | . 42 | 26 | 8  | 8  | 70 | 31 | 60 |
| Div. II., Notts. C.    | . 42 | 23 | 7  | 12 | 46 | 34 | 53 |
| Div. III., S. Section. |      |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Bristol City           | . 42 | 24 | 11 | 7  | 66 | 40 | 59 |
| Div. III., N. Section. |      |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| Nelson                 | . 38 | 24 | 3  | 11 | 61 | 41 | 51 |

### SOUTHERN LEAGUE

|                   |      |    |   |   |    |    |    |
|-------------------|------|----|---|---|----|----|----|
| English Section,  |      |    |   |   |    |    |    |
| Bristol City Res. | . 38 | 24 | 5 | 9 | 84 | 39 | 53 |
| Welsh Section,    |      |    |   |   |    |    |    |
| Ebbw Vale         | . 12 | 6  | 5 | 1 | 22 | 15 | 17 |

### LONDON COMBINATION

|         |      |    |   |    |    |    |    |
|---------|------|----|---|----|----|----|----|
| Arsenal | . 40 | 20 | 9 | 11 | 80 | 39 | 49 |
|---------|------|----|---|----|----|----|----|

### SCOTTISH LEAGUE

|                        |      |    |   |   |    |    |    |
|------------------------|------|----|---|---|----|----|----|
| Div. I., Rangers       | . 38 | 23 | 9 | 6 | 67 | 29 | 55 |
| Div. II., Queen's Park | . 38 | 24 | 9 | 5 | 73 | 31 | 57 |

### LONDON LEAGUE

|               |      |    |   |   |    |    |    |
|---------------|------|----|---|---|----|----|----|
| Premier Div., |      |    |   |   |    |    |    |
| Custom House  | . 30 | 19 | 6 | 5 | 72 | 33 | 44 |

### ISTHMIAN LEAGUE

|                 |      |    |   |   |    |    |    |
|-----------------|------|----|---|---|----|----|----|
| Senior Section, |      |    |   |   |    |    |    |
| Clapton         | . 26 | 15 | 7 | 4 | 51 | 33 | 37 |

### ATHENIAN LEAGUE.

|         |      |    |   |   |    |    |    |
|---------|------|----|---|---|----|----|----|
| Bromley | . 24 | 18 | 4 | 2 | 64 | 25 | 40 |
|---------|------|----|---|---|----|----|----|

## F.A. CUP WINNERS.

1922-23.—Bolton Wanderers beat West Ham (2-0).

## INTERNATIONAL CAMPAIGN.

### FINAL POSITIONS.

|          | P.  | W. | D. | L. | F. | A. | Goals. | Pts. |
|----------|-----|----|----|----|----|----|--------|------|
| Scotland | . 3 | 2  | 1  | 0  | 5  | 2  | 5      |      |
| England  | . 3 | 1  | 2  | 0  | 6  | 4  | 4      |      |
| Ireland  | . 3 | 1  | 0  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 2      |      |
| Wales    | . 3 | 0  | 1  | 2  | 2  | 7  | 1      |      |

## THE RUGBY GAME.

### COUNTY CHAMPIONSHIP.

Somerset met Leicestershire in the final at Bridgwater, and won by 8 points to 6 points, this being the first time they have ever gained the County Championship.

## INTERNATIONAL RESULTS.

Twickenham. - England, 7 pts.; Wales, 3 pts.  
 Edinburgh. - Scotland, 16 pts.; France, 3 pts.  
 Cardiff. - Wales, 8 pts.; Scotland, 11 pts.  
 Leicester. - England, 23 pts.; Ireland, 5 pts.  
 Swansea. - Wales, 16 pts.; France, 8 pts.  
 Dublin. - Ireland, 3 pts.; Scotland, 13 pts.  
 Dublin. - Ireland, 5 pts.; Wales, 4 pts.  
 Edinburgh. - Scotland, 6 pts.; England 8 pts.  
 Paris. - France, 3 pts.; England, 12 pts.  
 Paris. - France, 14 pts.; Ireland 8 pts.

## THE TABLE.

|                    | Points. |    |    |    |       |      |
|--------------------|---------|----|----|----|-------|------|
|                    | P.      | W. | D. | L. | F. A. | Pts. |
| England . . . . .  | 4       | 4  | 0  | 0  | 50    | 17 8 |
| Scotland . . . . . | 4       | 3  | 1  | 0  | 46    | 22 6 |
| Wales . . . . .    | 4       | 1  | 3  | 0  | 31    | 31 2 |
| France . . . . .   | 4       | 1  | 3  | 0  | 28    | 52 2 |
| Ireland . . . . .  | 4       | 1  | 3  | 0  | 21    | 54 2 |

## GOLF.

### HERD'S RECORD.

Coombe Hill Course, Kingston-on-Thames, January 3rd.—Alexander Herd, the open golf champion of 1902, did a hole in 1 for the 17th time in his life—a record which no other golfer has approached. It was at the 17th hole (147 yards).

At Roehampton, April 14th Herd won the professional tournament. In the final of 18 holes, he beat F. C. Jewell, by 3 and 2.

### HOLDERNESS V. TOLLEY.

Rye, Sussex, January 14th.—Ernest W. Holderness, the amateur golf champion, beat Cyril J. H. Tolley by 2 up in the 18-hole final of the Oxford and Cambridge Golfing Society's tournament for the president's putter.

### NEW GOLF RECORD.

Florida, March 17th.—Walter Hagen, the British open golf champion, playing on the Belleair Heights course, won the West Coast open championship with an aggregate of 276. He returned a 62 for his first round, thus establishing a new record.

### INTER 'VARSITY.

Rye, March 28th.—Oxford won the singles in the inter 'varsity golf match by 6 games to 4, thus securing the whole contest by 9 to 6.

### MIDDLESEX WOMEN'S CHAMPIONSHIP.

April 12th.—Miss Edith Leitch beat Mrs. Knight, 2 and 1.

### ARMY GOLF.

Littlestone, April 17th.—Major H. A. Boyd, Royal Field Artillery, with a score of 169, won the Army Championship and the Army Golfing Societies' chief prize, the Black Watch Challenge Medal, and Gold Memento given by that regiment in memory of Mr. F. G. Tait.

April 20th.—Grenadier Guards, the holders of the Army Inter-Regimental Challenge Cup, gained the trophy for another year, when in the 36-holes final they defeated the Cameron Highlanders by 22 holes to nil.

### LADIES V. MEN.

Stoke Poges, April 21st.—In the annual match between lady and men golfers, the men won by 10½ points to 4½.

### RANELAGH GOLD MEDAL.

Ranelagh, April 25th.—Miss Jessie Wethered won the Ranelagh gold medal at the Ladies' Golf Union international meeting, beating Mrs.

Macbeth after a tie by 36 to 27. The International Trophy was won by England with a score of 615.

### "DAILY MAIL" £1,000.

Lytham and St. Anne's, May 3rd.—Ted Ray, whose worst score of four rounds was 74, won first prize in *The Daily Mail* £1,000 tournament with rounds of 70, 74, 71 and 73 and an aggregate of 288.

### ST. GEORGE'S VASE.

Sandwich, May 4th.—Francis Ouimet, the U.S. player, with a round of 77 for the 18 holes, beat Dr. O. S. Willing, another American, for the St. George's Challenge Vase. Dr. Willing was round in 78.

### WOMEN'S OPEN CHAMPIONSHIP.

Burnham, Somerset, May 11th.—Miss Doris Chambers, the Wirral (Cheshire) golfer, beat Mrs. Allan Macbeth (Bowden), who, as Miss Muriel Dodd, won the title in 1913, in the final round, over 36 holes, of the Women's Open Championship. Miss Chambers won by 1 up.

### AMATEUR CHAMPIONSHIP.

Deal, May 12th.—Roger H. Wethered, of Worplesdon, Surrey, beat Robert Harris, of the Royal and Ancient Club, Fifeshire, by 7 up and 6 to play in the 36 holes final of the British Amateur Golf Championship.

### SURREY WOMEN'S CHAMPIONSHIP.

Woking, May 31st.—Miss M. Gourlay (Camberley Heath) beat Mrs. J. Collis-Browne (West Hill) by 3 up and 1 to play in the final of the Surrey Women's Golf Championship.

### A "JOLLY" TRIUMPH.

Leeds, May 19th.—H. C. Jolly (Foxgrove) beat Walter Hagen (U.S.A.) by 2 up over 36 holes of the Headingley club's course at Adel, near Leeds. The match was the final round of the £700 tournament promoted by the "Yorkshire Evening News."

### WALKER CUP.

St. Andrews, May 19th.—America won the Walker International Cup by a single point. On the two days' play the United States won six matches to Great Britain's five, with one halved match.

### "SOME" GOLF.

Ayrshire, June 7th.—A remarkable golf match was seen on the Western Gales course, when George Duncan and Abe Mitchell, the British professionals, beat Walter Hagen and Eugene Sarazen, the leading American professionals, by 4 up and 3 to play over two rounds of the links, after the Americans had led by 1 hole at the end of the first round.

### IRISH WOMAN CHAMPION.

Portsmouth, June 8th.—In the final of the Irish Women's Golf Championship, Miss Janet Jackson (Island) beat Mrs. Babington (Milltown) by 5 and 4.

### WELSH WOMAN CHAMPION.

Southerndown, June 8th.—Miss M. R. Cox beat Miss Molly Marley, an ex-holder of the title, in the final of the Welsh Women's Championship at the 39th hole.

### THE OPEN CHAMPIONSHIP.

Troon, June 15th.—Arthur Gladstone Havers, a native of Norwich, gained a brilliant victory in the open golf championship. His rounds were 73, 73, 73 and 76, total 295—the lowest aggregate since Edward Ray triumphed with the same figures at Muirfield eleven years ago. Thus has the cup returned to Britain after

## The British Dominions Year Book 1924

two years of American supremacy, Jock Hutchinson, of Chicago, securing it in 1921, and Walter Hagen, of Detroit, in 1922.

### HAVERS THOUSAND GUINEAS.

Gleneagles, June 23rd.—Arthur Havers, the open golf champion, beat Frank Ball, by 6 up and 5 to play in the 36-holes final of the *Glasgow Herald* 1,000 guineas tournament.

### FRENCH OPEN WOMEN'S CHAMPIONSHIP.

Chantilly, June 28th.—Miss Mollie Gourlay, of Camberley Heath, the English international player, won the French Open Women's Golf Championship for the first time. In the final over 36 holes, she defeated Mlle. de Bellet, of La Boulie, by 3 up and 2 to play in a 36 holes match.

### SCOTTISH WOMEN'S CHAMPIONSHIP.

Lossiemouth, June 29th.—In the final of the Scottish Women's Golf Championship, Mrs. W. H. Nicholson (Murrayfield) beat Mrs. J. B. Watson (Murrayfield) by 2 and 1. Mrs. Watson had previously won the championship three times in succession.

### FRENCH OPEN CHAMPIONSHIP.

Dieppe, July 2nd.—James Ockenden, of Raynes Park, London, won the French Open Golf Championship, with rounds of 73, 73, 72 and 70—288.

### FRENCH OPEN AMATEUR CHAMPIONSHIP.

Dieppe, July 7th.—Lieut.-Col. G. D. Hannay, of Addington, East Croydon, beat the Hon. Michael Scott, of Westward Ho! Devon, last year's winner, by 5 up and 4 to play in the 36 holes final of the French Open Amateur Golf Championship.

### CANADIAN PROFESSIONAL CHAMPIONSHIP.

Toronto, July 31st.—The Canadian Professional Golf Championship was won by P. Barrett, of the Uplands Club, Toronto, with a score of 151 for 36 holes.

### CANADIAN OPEN CHAMPIONSHIP.

Toronto, August 4th.—Clarence Hackney (U.S.A.) won the Canadian Open Championship, played over 72 holes, with a score of 295.

### SCOTTISH CHAMPIONSHIP.

Troon, July 28th.—T. M. Burrell, a Perthshire farmer and a member of the Troon Club, won the Scottish Amateur Golf Championship by beating A. R. McCallum, Edinburgh University, by one up. On his way to the final Burrell defeated J. L. C. Jenkins, the former British amateur champion.

### AUSTRALASIAN CHAMPION.

Adelaide, August 17th.—The Australasian Golf Championship was won by Howard, with an aggregate for four rounds of 301. A. Ham (England) was second with 304.

### THE VICTORY CUP.

St. Andrews, August 25th.—Mr. R. B. Kyle (St. Andrews) beat Mr. D. M. Stewart, of Ludin Links, in the final round of the Victory Cup Tournament, by two holes.

### BOYS' INTERNATIONAL.

Dunbar, August 27th.—As a prelude to the Boys' Open Golf Championship, an international match, England v. Scotland, was played yesterday, when Scotland won by 6 matches to 3, one being halved.

### BOY CHAMPION.

August 31st.—Although he was a hole to the bad at the end of the first eighteen, A. D. D. Mathieson (Edinburgh Academy), who won the boys' championship in its first year, 1921

regained the title by beating H. S. Mitchell (Sandwich), last year's winner, by 3 holes up and 1 to play.

### R.A.F. CHAMPIONSHIP.

Walton Heath, September 5th.—Squadron-Leader C. H. Hayward became Airman Champion for the fourth time by beating Flight-Lieut. C. Boumphrey, in the final of the Royal Air Force Championship, over 36 holes, by 4 and 2.

### CHAMPIONSHIP OF HOLLAND.

Hilversum, nr. Amsterdam, September.—Several well-known British golfers took part in the Open Championship of Holland, and H. Burrows (St. Andre) won with 153.

### JUBILEE VASE.

St. Andrews, September 8th.—The final round of the annual handicap tournament for the Queen Victoria Jubilee Vase was played between H. G. Curran (6) and A. Hutchison (5), and resulted in a win by 4 and 2 for Hutchison.

### CALCUTTA CUP.

St. Andrews, September 13th.—In the Calcutta Cup final, E. and W. Blackwell (scratch) beat Lieutenant-Colonel W. T. Lumsden and J. Stuart Paton (4) by 3 and 2.

### KENT PROFESSIONAL CHAMPIONSHIP.

September 13th.—Frank Ball won the Kent Professional Golf Championship on the Bromley and Bickley course with rounds of 72 and 69, total 141.

### WELSH PROFESSIONAL CHAMPIONSHIP.

September 14th.—J. W. Milner, the Royal Porthcawl Club, playing on his home course, won the replayed tie in the Welsh Professional Championship, beating Gus Faulkner, Pennard, by one stroke. Milner had rounds of 70 and 77, while Faulkner's returns were 76 and 72.

### WEST OF ENGLAND CHAMPIONSHIP.

September 15th.—The West of England Amateur Championship, over the Burnham and Berrow course, over 36 holes, was won by Douglas Grant, ex-champion of California, who beat Sidney H. Fry, the amateur billiards ex-champion, by 4 and 3.

### THE GIRL CHAMPION.

Stoke Poges, September 19th.—Miss Mary Mackay (Leatherhead) won the Girls' Golf Championship by defeating Miss Barbara Strohmenger, the fifteen-year-old Sunningdale player, in the final round by 3 up and 2 to play.

### U.S. AMATEUR CHAMPIONSHIP.

Chicago, September 22nd.—Max Marston (Philadelphia) beat Jesse Sweetser (New York), the previous year's winner, at the 38th hole in the final of the United States Amateur Golf Championship on the Flossmoor course.

### CANADIAN WOMEN'S CHAMPIONSHIP.

Montreal, September 22nd.—Mrs. Gavin, of England, the holder, was beaten in the final of the Canadian Women's Open Golf Championship by Miss Glenna Collette, of Providence, Rhode Island, by 2 and 1.

### FIRST ESSEX WOMAN CHAMPION.

Romford, September 26th.—Miss Marjorie Parkinson (Thorpe Hall), who was runner-up in the Girls' Golf Championship in 1921, won the first Essex Women's Championship by defeating Miss E. M. Pitts (Chelmsford) in the final by 7 and 5.

### PREMIER CAPTAIN.

St. Andrews, September 25th.—Col. Sir Alexander Sprot, who succeeded the Prince of Wales as Captain of the Royal and Ancient

Golf Club of St. Andrews, played himself into office in the presence of a large number of spectators. To commemorate his year of office the Prince of Wales presented to the club a replica of the Silver Club of 1754.

## WELSH AMATEUR CHAMPIONSHIP.

Southerndown, September 29th.—Cyril Tolley, entered from the Royal Porthcawl Club, won the Welsh Amateur Championship for the second time in three years, when, in the final over 36 holes, he beat Major Hezlet by 2 and 1.

## PROFESSIONAL CHAMPIONSHIP.

Walton Heath, October 5th.—Reginald G. Wilson (Cromham Hurst, South Croydon) won the first prize of £200 in the professional golf tournament, beating Thomas G. Renouf (Manchester) in the final of 36 holes by 4 up and 2 to play.

## WOMEN'S INTER-COUNTY CHAMPIONSHIP.

Scarborough, October 6th.—The Surrey team, headed by Miss Joyce Wethered, the English woman champion, won the English County Championship.

## ENGLISH WOMEN'S NATIVE CHAMPIONSHIP.

Scarborough, October 12th.—Miss Joyce Wethered (Worplesdon, Surrey) beat Mrs. T. A. Lodge (Burhill, Surrey) by 8 up and 7 to play in the 36 holes final of the English Women's Native Golf Championship. Thus at the age of 21 Miss Wethered secured the event for the fourth year in succession.

## WORPLESDON FOURSOMES.

Worplesdon Course, Nr. Woking, October 25th.—Miss Wethered and Cyril Tolley won the Open Mixed Foursome Tournament at Worplesdon, defeating Mrs. Macbeth and Bernard Darwin in the final by 6 and 5.

## WARWICKSHIRE WOMEN'S CHAMPIONSHIP.

October 26th.—Miss D. Hartill, Copt Heath, retained the Warwickshire Women's Championship. In the final she beat Mrs. Bell-Scott (Edgington) by 2 and 1.

## HOCKEY.

### LADIES' INTERNATIONAL.

Merton, Surrey, February 3rd.—The first Ladies' International Match, England v. France, resulted in a win for England by 23 goals to nil.

### ENGLAND v. SCOTLAND.

Richmond, March 22nd.—England defeated Scotland in the Women's Hockey International by 13 goals to nil.

### SCOTLAND v. WALES.

Newlands, Glasgow, February 17th.—Scotland beat Wales by 4—0.

### INTER-VARSITY.

Beckenham, February 21st.—Cambridge beat Oxford by 4—1.

### SCOTLAND v. IRELAND.

Belfast, March 3rd.—Scotland defeated Ireland by 2—0. This was the first time Scotland had beaten Ireland on Irish soil.

### ENGLAND v. WALES.

Bristol, March 10th.—England defeated Wales in the twenty-first match of the series by five goals to one.

### ENGLAND v. SCOTLAND.

Pittodrie Park, Aberdeen, March 17th.—England defeated Scotland by nine goals to one.

### ENGLAND v. IRELAND.

Edgbaston, March 24th.—England beat Ireland by four goals to one, thus retaining the

International Championship of the home counties, the record being.

|          | Goals. |    |    |    |    |    |        |
|----------|--------|----|----|----|----|----|--------|
|          | P.     | W. | D. | L. | F. | A. |        |
| England  | .      | .  | .  | 3  | 3  | 0  | 18 3   |
| Scotland | .      | .  | .  | 3  | 2  | 0  | 1 7 9  |
| Ireland  | .      | .  | .  | 3  | 0  | 1  | 2 3 8  |
| Wales    | .      | .  | .  | 3  | 0  | 1  | 2 3 11 |

## BRITISH UNIVERSITIES CHAMPIONSHIP.

Bangor, March 14th.—The final of the British Universities Hockey Championship, between Cardiff University and Leeds University, resulted in a win for Cardiff by 2 goals to nil.

## RINK HOCKEY.

Montreux, April 2nd.—The final of the series of three rink hockey matches between the Montreux Hockey Club and the British team resulted in a win for the British by 8—2. In the three games the Englishmen scored 18 goals to 8.

### ENGLAND v. FRANCE.

Paris, March 31st.—England beat France by two to one.

### IRELAND v. FRANCE.

Paris, March 2nd.—Ireland beat France by 4 goals to one.

## LACROSSE.

### INTERNATIONAL.

March 25th.—The International Lacrosse match between English and Scottish women ended in a win for England by 14 goals to 4.

## POLO.

### OPEN CHALLENGE CUP.

Roehampton, June 9th.—The Freebooters won the Open Challenge Cup Tournament by beating Major Magor's team of Pumas by the wide margin of eight goals.

### RANELAGH OPEN CUP.

Ranelagh, June 16th.—The final of the Ranelagh Polo Cup was won by Freebooters who beat Indian Tigers by 8 goals to 7.

### OXFORD v. CAMBRIDGE.

Hurlingham, June 23rd.—Cambridge beat Oxford by 6 goals to 3.

### CHAMPION CUP.

Hurlingham, June 30th.—This was an exciting final between the Indian Tigers and the Robots. When the last period started, the Robots led by 5—4. The Tigers quickly equalised again, and then there was a great struggle for the decisive goal, which the Robots scored just a minute before the call of time.

### INTER-REGIMENTAL TOURNAMENT.

Hurlingham, July 7th.—In the final of the Inter-Regimental Tournament the 17th and 21st Lancers beat the 15th and 19th Hussars by five goals to two.

### KING'S CORONATION CUP.

Ranelagh, July 14th.—The Indian Tigers, in the final, beat the 17th and 21st Lancers by 7 goals to 6.

### WHITNEY CUP.

Roehampton, July 14th.—In the final of the Whitney Cup Tournament, Cirencester beat the Pumas by 4 goals to 3.

### THE SUBALTERN'S CUP.

Ranelagh, July 21st.—In the final tie for the Subalterns' Cup, the 12th Lancers beat the 15/19th Hussars by six goals to five.

### LORDS v. COMMONS.

Ranelagh, July 21st.—The Commons defeated the Lords by 5 goals to 4. The Prince of Wales played for the Lords.



## PATRIOTIC CUP.

Hurlingham, July 21st.—The annual Patriotic Cup between England and Ireland was won by England by 7 goals to 3.

## ENGLAND v. U.S.

New York, October 2nd.—In the final for the Waterbury Cup, Meadowbrook, who conceded five goals start to Hurlingham, won by 14 goals to 10.

October 3rd.—The British Army polo team beat the Shelburne team by 10 goals to 5 in the semi-final of the Open Championship.

October 7th.—In the final, Meadowbrook beat the British Army by 12 goals to 9.

The Prince of Wales has placed his ponies at the disposal of the English team which is to play America at Meadowbrook in September this year.

## CONTINENTAL CUP.

Biarritz, October 15th.—In the final of the Continental Cup, the Eteteras beat the Butterflies by the narrow margin of one goal.

## PUNTING.

### AMATEUR CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Shepperton, July 28th. Results:—

Amateur Punting Championship ( $\frac{3}{4}$  mile).—H. D. Marshall beat R. Waterer easily. Time, 6 min. 45 sec.

Single Punting (novices) ( $\frac{3}{4}$  mile).—J. Darke beat S. Horton by  $2\frac{1}{2}$  lengths. Time, 5 min. 18 sec.

Single Punting (juniors, 2 ft. punts) ( $\frac{3}{4}$  mile).—G. W. Tindell beat E. L. Giles after a dead heat; in 5 min. 15 sec.

Single Punting Seniors ( $\frac{1}{2}$  mile).—R. R. Waterer beat A. E. Banham by  $\frac{1}{2}$  length. Time, 4 min. 52 sec.

Double Punting Championship.—L. H. Crispe and R. R. Waterer beat H. D. Marshall and A. H. F. Lukyn, Lukyn fell in. Time, 4 min. 32 sec.

### PROFESSIONAL CHAMPIONSHIP.

Maidenhead, August 2nd.—Course of one mile, with one turn. Wilson Edwards won by 4 lengths in 10 min. 43 sec.

## QUOITS.

### ENGLISH CHAMPIONSHIP.

Peterborough, July.—Mr. Arthur Bye won the English Quoiting Championship, beating Mr. Waspe, the former English champion.

## RACING.

**Lincolnshire Handicap.** 1 mile. March 21. White Bud, Mr. J. G. Dingley . J. Beasley 1  
Roman Bachelor, Mr. N. Baring . F. Fox 2  
Soval, Mr. F. Curzon . W. Lister 3  
Westmead, Mrs. S. Whitburn . M. Beary 4  
Betting 66-1 against. White Bud is the first mare to score since Little Eva in 1901, whose nearest predecessor was Rosy Cross in 1880.

**Grand National 'Chase Handicap.** About 4 miles, 856 yards. March 23.

Sergeant Murphy, Mr. S. Sanford Capt. Bennet 1  
Shaun Spadah, Sir M. McAlpine, F. B. Rees 2  
Conjuror II., Major Dewhurst, Mr. Dewhurst 3  
Punt Gun, Mrs. Putnam . M. Tighe 4

**City and Suburban.** About  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles. March 25.

Dry Toast, Mr. R. B. Davison, J. Townshend 1  
Roman Fiddle, Mr. Anthony de Rothschild . J. Childs 2  
Condoover, Mrs. A. Bendir . H. Beasley 3  
Copyright, Mr. J. P. Hornung . Donoghue 4

**Two Thousand Guineas.** One mile. May 2.  
Ellangowan, Lord Rosebery . E. C. Elliott 1  
Knockando, Ld. Woolavington, G. Archibald 2  
D'Orsay, Mrs. S. Whitburn . R. Jones 3  
Papyrus, Mr. B. Irish . Donoghue 4

**One Thousand Guineas Stakes.** 1 mile. May 4.

Tranquil, Lord Derby . E. Gardner 1  
Cos. H.H. Aga Khan . G. Hulme 2  
Shrove, Sir Edward Hulton W. McLachlan 3  
Solicitude, Mr. J. P. Hornung . H. Jelliss 4

**Great Jubilee Handicap.**  $1\frac{1}{2}$  mile. May 13.  
Simon Pure, Mr. Salvin . F. Bullock +  
Diligence, Lord Lonsdale . Donoghue +  
Condoover, Mrs. Bendir . H. Beasley 3  
Rock Fire, Sir F. Price . J. Townsend 4

**Newmarket Stakes,** for three-year-olds. One and a quarter miles. May 17.

Top Gallant, Ld. Penrhyn . F. Bullock 1  
Teresina, H.H. Aga Khan . Hulme 2  
Twelve Pointer, Duke of Westminster . Carslake 3  
Duncan Gray, Sir J. Robinson, Elliott 4

**Derby Stakes** of £50 each, £3,000 added. For three-year-olds.  $1\frac{1}{2}$  mile. June 6.

Papyrus, Mr. B. Irish . Donoghue 1  
Pharos, Lord Derby . E. Gardner 2  
Parth, Mr. M. Goculdas . A. Walker 3  
Doric, Mr. A. de. Rothschild . J. Childs 4

**Oaks Stakes** for three-year-old Fillies, 9 st. each.  $1\frac{1}{2}$  mile. June 8.

Brownhylda, Vicomte de Fontarce, V. Smyth 1  
Shrove, Sir E. Hulton . E. C. Elliott 2  
Teresina, H.H. Aga Khan . G. Hulme 3  
Tranquil, Lord Derby . E. Gardner 4

**The French Oaks.** Chantilly, June 10.

Quod . . . . . Atkinson 1  
Marotte . . . . . Garner 2  
Fiasque . . . . . J. Childs 3

**The French Derby.** Chantilly, June 10.

Le Capucin . . . . . 1  
Niceas . . . . . 2  
Sir Galahad . . . . . 3

**Gold Vase.** 2 mile. June 19.

Puttenden, Mr. W. Cazalet . J. Childs 1  
Verdict, Lord Coventry . Donoghue 2  
Baton Rouge, Mr. J. A. de Rothschild . F. Bullock 3  
Star Chamber, Sir G. Bullough . Elliott 4

**Prince of Wales' Stakes** (three-year-olds). 1 mile 5 furlongs. June 19.

Eastern Monarch, Sir G. Bullough . Elliott 1  
Carbonaro, Lord Howard de Walden . F. Bullock 2  
Pharos, Lord Derby . Gardner 3

**Queen Mary Stakes.** for 2-year old fillies. 5 fur. June 19.

Mumtaz Mahal, H.H. Aga Khan . Hulme 1  
Morals of Marcus, Mr. Glasspool F. Bullock 2  
White Bread, Lady Wavertree . Childs 3  
Rossmore, Sir A. Bailey . Lister 4

**Royal Hunt Cup.** Handicap. 7 fur. 166 yards. June 20.

Weatherane, His Majesty . Ingham 1  
Rock Fire, Sir F. Price . F. Voight 2  
Jarvie, Mr. C. Hatry . Feltham 3  
Condoover, Mrs. Bendir . H. Beasley 4

**The Gold Cup** (£500). £20 each, £3,500 added.  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles. June 21.

Happy Man, Mr. F. Hardy . V. Smyth 1  
Silurian, Lord Derby . T. Weston 2  
Flechois, M. M. Perrone . J. Jennings 3

**Grand Prix de Paris.** Longchamps. June 24.  
 Filibert de Savoie . . . . . 1  
 Le Capucin . . . . . 3

**Irish Derby.** Mile and a half. June 27.  
 Waygood, Mr. W. Raphael . . . Wing 1  
 Soldumeno, Mr. D. Sullivan . . . Burns 2  
 Greek Bachelor, Lord Queenborough . . . . . Archibald 3

**Eclipse Stakes.** 1½ mile. July 20.  
 Saltash, Lord Astor . . . J. Brennan 1  
 Teresina, H.H. Aga Khan . . . G. Hulme 2  
 Duncan Gray, Sir J. Robinson . . Donoghue 3

**National Breeders' Produce Stakes,** of 5,000 sovs. Five furlongs. July 21.  
 Mumtaz Mahal, H.H. Aga Khan . . Hulme 1  
 Ghter Gold, Maj. L. B. Holliday . . Lister 2  
 Battleship, Mr. Sol Joel . . . McLachlan 3

**St. George Stakes,** three-year-olds. 1 mile, 3 furlongs. July 25.  
 Advantage, Lord Lascelles . . . Wragg 1  
 Torlonia, Lord Derby . . . T. Weston 2

**Irish Oaks.** July 25.  
 Becka, Mr. W. M. G. Singer . . F. Bullock 1  
 Shri, Mr. F. Straker . . . Archibald 2  
 Glenshesk, Capt. Dixon . . . Wing 3

**Liverpool Cup.** 2,000 sovs. 1 mile, 2 furlongs, 170 yards. July 27.  
 Sun Charmer, Mrs. Heybourn . . Wragg 1  
 Moabite, Lord Derby . . . Weston 2  
 Set Off, Mr. Sol Joel . . . Smirke 3  
 Uula, Lady Torrington . . . J. Walsh 4

**Stewards' Cup.** 2 fur. July 31.  
 Epinar, M. Wertheimer . . E. Haynes 1  
 Jarvie, Mr. Cohen . . . Smirke 2  
 Hunting Song, Mr. Miller . . . Walsh 3  
 Meteoric, Mr. McGuffie . . . Feltham 4

**Goodwood Plate.** 2 mile, 3½ fur. August 1.  
 Trossach Girl, Sir D. Broughton . Timmins 1  
 Tomatin, Mr. Cazalet . . . F. Bullock 2  
 Silvester, Mr. Edge . . . Smirke 3  
 Tharos, Mr. T. White . . . R. Stokes 4

**King George Stakes.** 6 fur. August 1.  
 Sicyon, Mr. S. Joel . . . McLachlan 1  
 Golden Corn, Mr. M. Field . . . Childs 2  
 Suryakumari, Mr. Goculdas . . F. Bullock 3  
 Tremola, Mr. Falcon . . . Elliott 4

**Goodwood Cup.** 2 mile 5 fur. August 2.  
 Triumph, Mr. A. de Rothschild . . Childs 1  
 Bucks Hussar, Sir A. Bailey . . Carslake 2

**Chesterfield Cup.** 1½ mile. August 3.  
 Evander, Mr. S. Joel . . . McLachlan 1  
 Poisoned Arrow, Maj. Cayzer . . Fox 2  
 Clochnaben, Mr. White . . . Archibald 3

**St. Leger Stakes** of 50 sovs. each, with 4,000 sovs. added. For three-year-olds. 1 mile, 6 furlongs, 132 yards. September 12.  
 Tranquil, Lord Derby . . . T. Weston 1  
 Papyrus, Mr. B. Irish . . . Donoghue 2  
 Teresina, H.H. Aga Khan . . . Hulme 3  
 Parth, Mr. Goculdas . . . F. O'Neill 4

**Imperial Produce Plate** (Kempton). 6 fur October 12.  
 Arcade, Mr. A. de Rothschild . . Childs 1  
 Mumtaz Mahal, H.H. Aga Khan . . Hulme 2  
 Tip-hossa, Sir H. Meux . . . G. Smith 3  
 This was the first defeat of the famous filly, Mumtaz Mahal.

**Doncaster Cup** (Plate). £1,200. 2 miles, 1 furlong. October 14.  
 Silurian, Lord Derby . . . T. Weston 1  
 Flint Jack, Mr. G. Plevins . . . Gray 2  
 Bessema, Sir A. Bailey . . . F. Bullock 3

**Cesarewitch Stakes.** Handicap. 2½ mile. October 17.  
 Rose Prince, Mr. R. Macomber . . Archibald 1  
 Teresina, H.H. Aga Khan . . . G. Smith 2  
 Ceylonesse, Sir A. Bailey . . . Lister 3  
 Miwani, Sir H. Lawson . . . Richards 4

**Cambridgeshire Stakes.** 1 mile 1 furlong. October 31.  
 Verdict, Lord Coventry . . . Beary 1  
 Epihar, M. Weithemerr . . . Haynes 2  
 Dumas, Mr. G. Hardy . . . G. Richards 3  
 Pharos, Lord Derby . . . Weston 8

KING'S WINNERS.

**New Stands Handicap.** Pontefract, April 11.  
 Bowood, His Majesty . . . Wragg 1  
 Jazz Band, Mr. A. Scott . . . J. Clancy 2  
 Rory's Glen, Mr. C. L. Mackean . T. Weston 3

**Combercombe High-Weight Handicap.** 7 fur. May 10.  
 Picardy, His Majesty . . . Wragg 1  
 Jacquot, Mr. A. W. Gordon . . J. Childs 2  
 Nane Snugger, Mr. O. W. Rayner . J. Brennan 3  
 Miss Majority, Baron F. de Tuyl . Beary 4

**Eglinton Stakes.** 5 fur. May 30.  
 Knight of the Garter, His Majesty H. Jones 1  
 Green Islet, Mr. C. W. Whitburn . R. Jones 2  
 Servulus, Mr. H. J. Newman . . Archibald 3  
 Hippolyte, F. Sir A. Bailey . . . Winter 4

**Chesterfield Plate.** About one mile six furlongs and 132 yards. June 2.  
 Bowood, His Majesty . . . H. Jones 1  
 Sierra Leone, Lord Derby . . . T. Weston 2  
 Piccadilly, Sir R. W. B. Jardine . Wragg 3

**Coventry 2-Y.-O. Stakes.** 5 fur. Ascot, June 19.  
 Knight of the Garter, His Majesty H. Jones 1  
 Beresford, Mr. C. Ismay . . . Archibald 2  
 Hades, Mr. C. Whitburn . . . R. Jones 3  
 Merriment, Sir R. Jardine . . . Giggis 4

**Royal Hunt Cup.** Handicap. June 20.  
 Weathervane, His Majesty . . . Ingram 1  
 Rock Fire, Sir F. Price . . . F. Voight 2  
 Jarvie, Mr. C. Hatry . . . Feltham 3  
 Condoover, Mrs. Bendir . . . H. Beasley 4

**Plantation Stakes.** 2-year olds (Div. I.). 5 furlongs. Newmarket, July 4th.  
 Carmel, His Majesty . . . Wragg 1  
 Glow C. Mr. W. S. Redmond . . R. Jones 2  
 Kitten on the Keys, Sir B. Sheffield . . . Jelliss 3  
 Edwin, Mr. J. A. de Rothschild . Donoghue 4

**Chichester Plate.** 5 furlongs. August 3.  
 Joss-House, His Majesty . . . Wragg 1  
 Orderly, Mr. Falcon . . . Elliott 2  
 Mebos, Mr. J. White . . . Fox 3  
 Cambodia, Mr. Bassett . . . Lister 4

**Nottinghamshire.** 5 furlongs. August 13.  
 Knight of the Garter, His Majesty H. Jones 1  
 Rendezvous, Mr. Gūpin . . . Archibald 2  
 Slippery Jane, Duke of Portland . Donoghue 3

**Maiden 2-Y.-O. Plate.** 5 furlongs. August 16.  
 Erne, His Majesty . . . H. Jones 1  
 Gay Angela, Mr. S. Joel . . . McLachlan 2  
 Demi-Volt, Lady Carnarvon . . Donoghue 3  
 Santolina, Mr. A. Salvin . . . R. Jones 4

# The British Dominions Year Book 1924

## Fountain Handicap, Hurst Park.

|                                   |            |
|-----------------------------------|------------|
| 1 mile 6 fur. 186 yds. August 24. |            |
| London Cry, His Majesty           | Wragg 1    |
| Kent Eaglet, Mr. H. M. Mehta      | Smith 2    |
| Challow, Mr. H. Kershaw           | Beary 3    |
| Tomahawk, Mr. M. Weil             | V. Smyth 4 |

## Birchfield Maiden Stakes, Haydock Park.

|                       |            |
|-----------------------|------------|
| One mile: August 31.  |            |
| Lady Feo, His Majesty | Wragg 1    |
| Martina               | Richards 2 |
| Second Crop           | R. Jones 3 |

## Prince Edward Handicap, Manchester. 2 miles.

|                          |              |
|--------------------------|--------------|
| September 8.             |              |
| London Cry, His Majesty  | R. Jones 1   |
| Juniso, Mr. W. Singer    | F. Bullock 2 |
| Mizzen Mast, Lady Nelson | G. Smith 3   |

## Brethly Stakes, Newmarket. 2-year old fillies.

|                                    |            |
|------------------------------------|------------|
| £100 each. 6 furlongs. October 18. |            |
| Carmel, His Majesty                | Wragg 1    |
| Iturea, Mr. W. Clark               | Carlsake 2 |
| Dandelion, Lord Jersey             | Lane 3     |

## Theale Maiden 2-Y.-O. Plate, Newbury. 5 fur.

|                               |             |
|-------------------------------|-------------|
| October 24.                   |             |
| Resinato, His Majesty         | Wragg 1     |
| No Quarter, Lord Woolavington | Archibald 2 |
| Favara, D. of Westminster     | Carlsake 3  |
| Taj Mahal, H.H. Aga Khan      | Hulme 4     |

## Durham Handicap. £500. 1½ miles. October 26.

|                          |             |
|--------------------------|-------------|
| London Cry, His Majesty  | Wragg 1     |
| Argo, Mr. Sol. Joel      | McLachlan 2 |
| False Note, Lord Penrhyn | A. Haynes 3 |

## THE PRINCE OF WALES.

Hawthorn Hill, March 9th.—The Prince of Wales won the Welsh Guards race, on Little Favourite, at the Guards Point to Point meeting. When riding Just an Idea in the Grenadier Guards' race, the Prince came in a good second to Badger II. He would probably have won it if he had not lost his whip.

Hawthorn Hill, April 4th.—The Prince of Wales, riding his own horse, Little Favourite, won the Welsh Guards' Challenge Cup in the Household Brigade steeplechases by ten lengths. This was the second time the Prince had won this Cup. Two years previously he gained a success on Pet Dog. The King and Queen were present at the race.

Tethbury, April 7th.—The Prince of Wales, at the Beaufort Hunt Steeplechases, was declared the winner of the Royal Lancers' Cup after his opponent had been disqualified. The Prince rode Kinlark.

## PRINCE'S RACING COLOURS.

The Prince of Wales registered his colours—red, blue sleeves, black cap—under National Hunt rules.

## INTERESTING ITEMS.

### A RECORD TIME.

Mumtaz Mahal, a filly owned by the Aga Khan, won the Spring Two-year-old Stakes, at Newcastle, May 16, in the record time for her age, of 57 4/5 sec.

### WOMEN JOCKEYS.

Miss Betty Tanner, daughter of Mr. Ernest Tanner, owner and breeder of racehorses, rode in the Town Plate race at Newmarket on October 11, and finished third in a field of five. There have been few cases of women riding at race meetings. In 1905, Mrs. Maggio, wife of a veterinary surgeon, rode in a mile race at Epsom against a Mr. Wyatt, of Reigate, Surrey,

for £100 a side. Mrs. Maggio rode at the weight of 11st. and Mr. Wyatt at 9st. 6 lb. Mrs. Maggio won by eight lengths. Mrs. Thornton, wife of a Yorkshire landowner, rode a four-miles race at York in 1804 for £1,000, with a side bet of £500, against her brother-in-law, Captain Flint. Mrs. Thornton appeared to be winning easily when her saddle slipped and she had to pull up.

### ZEV v. PAPYRUS.

Belmont Park, Long Island, October 20.—Zev, Mr. H. F. Sinclair's crack three-year-old American horse, ridden by Sande, defeated Papyrus, Mr. Ben Irish's Derby winner, ridden by Donoghue, by five lengths. The race, which was over a course of one and a half miles—the same distance as the Derby—took 2 min. 35 2/5 sec., as against 2 min. 38 sec. taken by Papyrus in his victory at Epsom. The winner received £20,000 and the U.S. Jockey Club's Challenge Cup of £1,000, and the loser took £4,000. Zev, by his latest success, became America's greatest money-winning horse, having netted for his owner over £50,000.

## RACQUETS.

### ARMY CHAMPIONSHIPS.

#### Princes Club.

March 1st.—The Rifle Brigade defeated the Coldstream Guards in the final of the Army racquets doubles championship by 4 games to love (15—9, 15—11, 15—12, 15—4).

March 6th.—Captain T. O. Jameson (Rifle Brigade), the holder, retained his title of Army singles racquets champion by defeating Captain H. G. Moore-Gwyn (Rifle Brigade) in the final round by 3 games to 1 (11—15, 15—0, 15—3, 15—10).

### SQUASH RACQUETS.

Lords, April 14th.—Captain T. O. Jameson, the holder of the singles rackets championship of the Army, became the first squash rackets amateur champion when he defeated Captain J. E. Tomkinson in the final by 17—15, 11—15, 15—0.

### SCHOOLS RACQUETS.

Queens Club, April 21st.—Rugby beat Radley.

### AMATEUR CHAMPIONSHIP.

Queens Club, March 27th.—Doubles Championship.—The holders, J. C. F. Simpson and R. C. O. Williams retained their title of amateur racquets doubles champions by defeating the challengers, the Hon. C. N. Bruce and H. W. Leatham, by 4 games to 3 (11—15, 5—15, 15—8, 17—15, 9—15, 15—6, 15—4).

Queens Club, April 7th.—Singles Championship.—E. M. Baerlein defeated the Hon. C. N. Bruce (holder) in the challenge round of the Amateur Singles Racquets Championship by 3 games to 1 (15—3, 9—15, 15—6, 15—6). This is Baerlein's ninth victory in the competition, and he has now beaten H. K. Foster's record.

## ROWING.

### HENLEY.

#### July.

Thames Challenge Cup.—First Trinity (Cambridge), 1; Maidenhead R.C. 2. Won by three quarters of a length in 7 min. 12 sec.

Ladies' Challenge Plate.—Trinity College, (Oxford), 1; Jesus College, Cambridge, 2. Won by one length in 6 min. 55 sec.

Inter-School Match.—St. Paul's School, 1, Beaumont College, 2. Won in 7 min. 19 sec.

**Diamond Challenge Sculls.**—M. K. Morris (London Rowing Club), 1; D. H. L. Gollan (Leander Club), 2. Won by one length in 8 min. 23 sec.

**Grand Challenge Cup.**—Thames R.C., 1; Pembroke College, Cambridge, 2. Won by a third of a length in 8 min. 45 sec.

**Silver Goblets and Nickalls' Challenge Cup.**—Trinity College, Oxford, 1; Leander Club, 2. Won on the post in 8 min. 12 sec.

**Visitors' Challenge Cup.**—Magdalen College, Oxford, 1; Trinity College, Oxford, 2. Won by 12 lengths in 7 min. 44 sec.

**Wyfold Challenge Cup.**—Imperial College Boat Club, 1; Jesus College, Cambridge, 2. Won by a length in 7 min. 50 sec.

**Stewards' Challenge Cup.**—Third Trinity, Cambridge, 1; Magdalen College, Oxford, 2. Won easily in 7 min. 30 sec.

## OXFORD V. CAMBRIDGE.

March 24th.—Oxford won the 75th Boat Race by three-quarters of a length in 20 min. 54 sec., leaving the records at 40 wins to the Dark Blues and 34 for Cambridge, with a dead heat in 1877. The Dark Blues had two Americans in their crew.—W. P. Mellen (stroke), and R. K. Kane, No. 4. The race was instituted in 1829. First rowed over the Putney-Mortlake course 1864. The length of the course is  $\frac{1}{4}$  miles. The record time for the course, 18 min. 29 sec., was made by Oxford in 1911. In 1912 the race was declared "no race" owing to the Cambridge boat sinking near Harrods, and Oxford had to bale water out of their boat before putting in at Chiswick Reach. The race was re-rowed on April 1. R. C. Bourne stroked the Oxford crew to victory in four successive years, 1909-10-11-12. Out-rigger boats were used in 1846, and keelless boats in 1857. The race was first rowed at Henley.

## SCULLING CHAMPIONSHIP.

Richmond River, New South Wales, July 21.—James Paddon (holder) beat D'Arcy Hadfield, by six lengths in 19 min. 19 sec.

## DOGGETT'S COAT AND BADGE.

London Bridge to Chelsea, August 1st.—The winner was Richard William Phelps, of Putney, the third of the sons of Charles Phelps winner in 1884) to secure the distinction. T. J. won in 1922, and T. E. in 1919. An uncle, William Phelps, won in 1875, and another ancestor in 1860, so that Richard William, was the sixth member of the famous Putney waterside family to secure the Badge—a record in the history of the contest.

## WINGFIELD SCULLS.

August 2nd.—Putney to Mortlake.—Amateur Championship of the Thames,  $\frac{1}{4}$  miles. J. Beresford, Jr., gained his fourth consecutive success by beating D. H. L. Gollan, Leander Club, by four lengths in 24 min. 27 sec.

## SHOOTING.

### KING'S PRIZE.

Bisley, July 7th to 21st.—Captain E. R. Robinson (late R.A.F.), a journalist, won the King's Prize. After close competition at 900 yards and at the final range of 1,000 yards, he tied with Lieut.-Col. W. T. Norton (late Queen's Westminsters). The tie was immediately shot off, and Captain Robinson proved an easy winner, the scores shot for shot being:—Capt. Robinson, 5-5-5, 15; Lieut.-Col. Norton, 4-4-3, 11.

## ELCHO SHIELD.

England won the Elcho Challenge Shield. Scores: England, 1,620 points; Scotland 1,561 Ireland, 1,501.

## ST. GEORGE'S VASE.

Major S. A. Pixley, late N.R.A. School of Musketry, was the winner.

**PRINCE OF WALES' PRIZE** was won by Lance Corporal Norton, late Queen's Westminster Rifles.

**MACKINNON CUP** was won by England.

**LORDS V. COMMONS.**—Commons won by 13 points.

**KOLAPORE CUP.**—The Mother Country won the Kolapore Imperial Challenge Cup for the third year in succession.

## SKATING.

**Half Mile Roller Skating Championship of Europe**, Holland Park, January 6th.—Final, A. V. Symondson (England), 1 min. 31  $\frac{1}{5}$  sec.; R. Beaufard (France) and R. Neels (Belgium) dead-heated for second place in 1 min. 32  $\frac{1}{5}$  sec. Won by a yard.

**Mile** (Southern Counties Amateur), Holland Park, January 25th.—T. J. Wilson (holder) (England and Catford) won the mile amateur rolling skating championship of the Southern Counties in 3 min. 17  $\frac{4}{5}$  sec.

## ICE HOCKEY.

In January, Oxford University players earned the reputation of being the best ice hockey team which had yet visited the Continent with the exceptions of the Canadian and American sides which took part in the Olympic Games. Oxford's successes included, Cambridge, by 8 goals to 1; Paris, by 7 goals to 2; Davis, 11-0; Berlin, 11-1; St. Moritz, 12-2, and the Army, by 10-5.

**One Mile Amateur Speed Championship**, Holland Park, February 8th.—The one-mile Amateur Roller Speed Championship of Great Britain was won by T. J. Wilson, of the England and Catford Speed Club, in 3 min. 27  $\frac{1}{5}$  sec.

**Mile** (British Amateur), Holland Park, February 8th.—The One Mile British Amateur Roller-Skating Championship, decided in the presence of the Duke of York, provided a great contest. Decided in five heats and a final, the event resulted in a win for T. J. Wilson (England and Catford), who beat J. Weatherburn (Aldwych S.C.) by a length and a half in 3 min. 27  $\frac{1}{5}$  sec.

**Figure Skating Championship.**—Manchester Ice Palace, March 5th.—The Figure Skating Championship of Great Britain (English style) was won by R. S. Hewitt (Bear Skating Club), the holder. The competition for teams of four, English style, was won by the Manchester Skating Club.

## SWIMMING AND DIVING.

### SWIMMING.

#### CHAMPIONSHIPS.

**220 Yards**, Blackpool, June 9th.—The 220 Yards A.S.A. Championship was won by Arne Borg, of Stockholm, in 2 min. 29  $\frac{3}{5}$  sec. L. Savage, Penguin S.C., London, was second in 2 min. 40 sec.

**220 YARDS**, Shepherds Bush, July 1st.—In winning the 220 yards National Swimming Championship at Lime Grove Baths, Miss C. M. Jeans, Nottingham, regained the title lost in 1921 and created a record for the event by covering the distance in 2 min. 54 sec.

**200 YARDS, July 1st.**—The 200 yards swimming championship of Ireland was won by D. G. Munroe, Belfast, in 2 min. 57 2/5 sec.

**BACK-STROKE, Cleethorpes, August 4th.**—At Sidney Park, the 150 yards back-stroke championship was won by A. Rawlinson of Garston (holder).

**POLICE CHAMPIONSHIP, Tooting Baths, August 1st.**—The contest for the police 440 yards swimming championship of England was won by the holder, T. Pattison (Blackburn), in 6 min. 23 4/5 sec.

**QUARTER-MILE, Jersey, August 2nd.**—Leslie Savage, of the Penguin S.C., won the southern counties quarter-mile swimming championship.

**CHANNEL SWIM.**—August 5th and 6th.—Henry Sullivan, an American, succeeded in swimming the Channel, having been in the water for 27 hours, 23 minutes. On the occasion of his first attempt to swim the Channel in 1913, he only succeeded in covering 15 miles. The English Channel has only been swum twice previously. In 1875, Captain Matthew Webb swam from Dover to Calais on August 24 and 25 in 21 hours 45 minutes. In 1911, Thomas William Burgess covered the same course on September 5th and 6 in 22 hours, 35 minutes.

**HALF-MILE, Wrexham, August 7th.**—The half-mile swimming Championship of Wales, decided in the Dee at Holt, was won by R. Cox (Porthcawl).

**ENGLISH MILE, Leicester, August 7th.**—J. G. Hatfield, of Middlesbrough, for the sixth successive occasion, won the English mile swimming championship. His time was 24 min. 54 sec.

**500 YARDS, Great Yarmouth, August 11th.**—The 500 yards Championship of England was won by J. S. Hatfield (Middlesbrough) the holder, in 6 min. 18 2/5 sec.

**880 YARDS.**—880 yards Midland District Championship was won by P. Overton, Ipswich, in 15 min. 19 sec.

**FANCY DIVING, Hammersmith June 30th.**—A. R. Knight Otter S.C., was again successful in the fancy diving championship. Knight won with 202 points, beating G. R. Johns, Newton, who was second.

## AMATEUR DIVING CHAMPIONSHIPS.

**Surrey Commercial Dock, July 14th.**—The Port of London Authority Swimming Club's gala was held in the Canada Pond, when the National Graceful Diving Championship and the Amateur Diving Association Ladies' high plain diving Championship were included in the programme. The former was won by A. R. Knight (Otter Swimming Club) for the fourth year in succession with 242.4 points. Miss Belle White (Ilford Ladies'), holder of the Ladies' Diving Championship, again secured first honours with 119 points.

**Highgate, September 1st.**—High Plain Diving Championship.—A. E. Dickens, 145 points,

## ANOTHER CHANNEL SWIM.

**August 12th.**—For the second time in six days a swimmer had conquered the Channel. Sebastian Tiraboschi, the Argentinian, swum from Cape Grisez in the record time of sixteen hours twenty-three minutes. No one had previously swum the Channel from the French side.

## LADY SWIMMERS.

**July 28th.**—Miss Hilda James, of Liverpool, won the Women's Long-Distance Amateur Swimming Championship of England in the Thames from Kew to Putney—a distance of five miles and sixty yards. Time, 1 hour, 9 min. 47 sec.

**July 24th.**—The Surrey Ladies' Swimming Club long distance swim resulted in a win for Miss Lily Dovey, who swam from Surbiton to Hammersmith Bridge, a distance of 12 miles one furlong in 7 hrs. 22 min.

**100 Yards, Cleethorpes, August 4th.**—At Sidney Park, the 100 yards Ladies' Midland Championship was won by C. M. Jeans (holder).

**100 Yards, Worthing, August 8th.**—Miss I. V. Tanner (Eastbourne) won the Southern Counties Women's 100 yards Championship, in 1 min. 10 1/5 sec., being 3 4/5 sec. better time than the previous record.

**200 Yards, Great Yarmouth, August 11th.**—The 200 yards ladies' breast stroke championship was retained by Miss G. H. Carson, Leicester, in 3 min. 18 sec.

**1 Mile (Warwickshire), Birmingham, August 15th.**—C. E. Wilding retained the mile championship of Warwickshire.

**Half Mile (England), Scarborough, August 18th.**—J. G. Hatfield, of Middlesbrough, gained his fifth and third consecutive victory in the Amateur Swimming Association's half-mile championship of England. Hatfield's time was 12 min. 15 1/5 sec.

## PARIS SWIM.

**Paris, August 19th.**—David Billington won the annual swimming contest in the Seine through Paris over a 12 kilometres course—about 7 1/2 miles.

**440 Yards, Torquay, August 22nd.**—E. P. Peter (Penguin Swimming Club, London), the holder, won the 440 yards salt water championship of England. Time, 5 min. 52 3/5 sec.

**100 Metres, Aldershot, August 23rd.**—Miss Doris Hart established a new world's record for the 100 metres back stroke. She covered the distance in 1 min. 35 sec. dead, thus beating the record made by Miss Rignmore Olsen, the Danish champion, by four-fifths of a second.

## LONG DISTANCE AMATEUR CHAMPIONSHIP.

**August 25th.**—The long-distance amateur championship of England from Kew to Putney, a distance of about 5 miles and 60 yards, was won by J. G. Hatfield (Middlesbro' S.C.), in 1 hour, 7 min. 13 sec.

**200 yards, Devonport, September 1st.** National Breast-stroke championship resolved into a duel between W. Stoney (Huddersfield) and H. Bouvier (Sporting Club, University of France), the Englishman winning in 2 min. 51 sec.

## GIRLS' PARIS SWIM.

**Paris, August 26th.**—Miss Hilda James, of the Cunard Swimming Club, who is an English girl, won the 4 1/2 miles swim through Paris in 2 hrs. 32 mins. There were 14 competitors, Mdlle. E. Lebrun, France's best woman swimmer, was second, and was beaten by 9 minutes.

## THIRD CHANNEL SWIM.

The United States swimmer, Charles Toth of Boston, reached Hope Point, east of St. Margaret's Bay, Dover, at 11.50 a.m. Sunday, September 9th, having swum the Channel from Calais in 16 hours, 54 minutes. He entered the water at 6.56 p.m. on Saturday. He was the third swimmer to cross the Channel in 5 weeks.

**100 Yards, Hastings, September 8th.**—The 100 yards swimming championship of the Southern Counties' District of the A.S.A. was again won by the holder, A. H. Pycock, Polytechnic S.C., in 59 secs.

**220 Yards, Eastbourne, September 24th.**—Miss I. Tanner won the 220 yards women's



championship of the Southern Counties in 3 min. 4 sec.

220 Yards, Lambeth Baths, October 5th.—E. P. Peter (Penguin) won the 220 yards championship of the Southern Counties in 2 min. 35 2/5 sec.

## TENNIS.

### WORLD'S COVERED COURTS CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Barcelona, February.—

Men's Singles.—H. Cochet (France) beat J. F. Gilbert (British Isles), with scores of 6-4, 7-5, 6-4.

Women's Singles.—Miss McKane defeated Mrs. Beamish by 6-3, 4-6, 6-2 in the final.

Men's Doubles.—H. Cochet and J. Couiteas (France) won the men's doubles championship defeating Erik Tegner and L. Rovsing (Denmark), 6-1, 6-1, 7-5.

Women's Doubles Championship.—Miss McKane and Mrs. Beamish beat Mme. Golding and Mme. Vaussard, 6-1, 6-1.

Mixed Doubles.—Miss McKane and W. C. Crawley beat Mrs. Beamish and J. B. Gilbert, 8-6, 6-3, 6-3.

### TABLE TENNIS.

London Club, Baker Street, March 9th.—International Match. The first table tennis international match between England and Wales, resulted in the easy victory of England. Championships.—Stadium Club, April.—The English Singles Champion, Mr. A. Donaldson, a Sunderland schoolmaster, was defeated by Mr. Moss Cohen, of London. The Ladies' Championship went to Miss K. Berry, of Honor Oak. "Daily Mirror" Championship, May.—The "Daily Mirror" All-British Table Tennis Championships. Winners, Mr. J. Thompson, Bristol, and Miss K. Berry of Honor Oak, S.E.

### LONDON V. PARIS.

Dulwich Covered Courts, March.—Results of the match between London and Paris.

M. Cousen (Paris) lost to W. C. Crawley, 2-6, 3-6, 5-7.

J. Borotra (Paris) beat J. P. D. Wheatley by 6-4, 4-6, 6-2, 7-5.

R. Lacoste (Paris) beat D. M. Greig, 6-4, 6-3, 4-6, 6-1.

R. Lacoste and J. Couiteas (Paris) lost to S. N. Doust and J. B. Gilbert, 6-8, 6-2, 3-6, 8-6, 3-6.

M. Cousen and J. Borotra (Paris) beat C. G. Farns, jun., and C. H. Kingsley, 6-2, 3-6, 6-4, 6-2.

P. Guillemaut and R. Danet (Paris) lost to W. C. Crawley and J. D. P. Wheatley, 4-6, 2-6, 7-9.

J. Couiteas (Paris) walked over against S. N. Doust.

Totals: Paris, 15; London, 6.

### CHAMPIONSHIPS OF EUROPE.

Dulwich, March 24th.—Results.—Men's Open Singles.—B. I. C. Norton (holder) beat A. A. Fyze, 7-5, 4-6, 6-0, 6-1.

Women's Open Singles.—Mrs. H. Edgington beat Mrs. Craddock (holder), 6-1, 2-6, 7-5.

Men's Open Doubles.—D. M. Greig and C. Ramaswami beat J. D. P. Wheatley and Dr. A. H. Fyze, 6-3, 1-6, 6-1, 6-6, 6-4.

Women's Open Doubles.—Mrs. Craddock and the Hon. Mrs. Ceiston beat Miss J. Reid-Thomas and Mrs. Jackson, 6-4, 7-5.

Open Mixed Doubles.—"Dixie" and Mrs. H. Edgington beat B. D. Helmore and Miss I. A. Maltby, 6-3, 6-2.

### WOMEN'S COUNTY CHAMPIONSHIP.

Northampton, April 24th.—Middlesex easily retained the women's hard court county lawn tennis championship, beating Notts. by 8 matches to nil. with one left unfinished.

### COVERED COURTS CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Queens Club, April 14th.—Results:—

Men's Singles Championship.—J. D. P. Wheatley beat Dr. A. H. Fyze, 1-6, 6-2, 6-4, 6-4.

Ladies' Singles Championship.—Mrs. Clayton beat Mrs. H. Edgington, 6-3, 6-2.

Men's Doubles Championship.—S. N. Doust and "Dixie" beat Hamilton Price and J. D. P. Wheatley, 4-6, 6-2, 4-6, 6-1, 6-4.

Mixed Doubles Championship.—"Dixie" and Mrs. H. Edgington beat J. D. P. Wheatley and Miss E. L. Colyer, 2-6, 9-7, 6-1.

### CHAMPIONSHIP

Queens Club, May 2nd.

E. M. Baerlein successfully defended his title in the Challenge Round of the Amateur Tennis Championship, beating V. H. Pennell by 3 sets to 2.

### A YOUTHFUL RECORD.

Roehampton, April 28th.—Miss Betty Nuthall accomplished a remarkable performance in the Hard Court Tournament when, at the age of eleven, she won the Ladies' Second-class Singles Handicap, giving points to an opponent twice her size. This easily beats the record of the lady ex-champion, Mrs. Lambert Chambers, who won her first handicap in a big tournament at the age of thirteen.

### SURREY HARD COURTS CHAMPIONSHIPS.

April 28th.—Results of Finals:—

Men's Open Singles.—B. I. C. Norton (holder) beat J. D. P. Wheatley, 6-2, 6-3, 6-1.

Women's Open Singles.—Miss McKane (holder) beat Mrs. Beamish, 6-2, 7-5.

Men's Open Doubles.—J. B. Gilbert and D. M. Greig beat J. D. P. Wheatley and E. T. Lamb, 6-1, 3-6, 6-1, 4-6, 6-2.

Women's Open Doubles.—Mrs. Edgington and Miss McKane beat Mrs. Beamish and Mrs. Craddock, 6-3, 6-2.

Open Mixed Doubles.—B. I. C. Norton and Miss E. L. Colyer beat F. M. B. Fisher and Mrs. Beamish, 6-2, 6-1.

### NORTH LONDON TOURNAMENT.

Results of the North London Hard Courts Tournament, Highbury, May 5.

Men's Open Singles.—D. M. Greig beat Don Quixote, 7-9, 6-2, 6-2, 1-6, 6-4.

Ladies' Open Singles.—Mrs. H. Edgington beat Mrs. R. C. Clayton, 7-5, 6-4.

Men's Open Doubles.—H. I. P. Aitken and Dr. A. H. Fyze beat G. Crole-Rees and W. T. Tucker, 6-3, 6-1, 6-2.

Ladies' Open Doubles.—Mrs. Clayton and Miss E. R. Clarke beat Mrs. Craddock and Miss Colyer, 6-2, 3-6, 6-4.

Open Mixed Doubles.—S. N. Doust and Mrs. Clayton beat D. Craig and Miss Reid-Thomas, 6-3, 1-6, 7-6.

### WORLD'S CHAMPIONSHIP.

Prince's Club, May 12th.—The match for the tennis championship of the world between G. F. Covey (England) (holder), and Walter Kinsella (America) ended in a victory for Covey by 7 sets to 3.

### WEST OF ENGLAND CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Bristol, June 2nd.—Finals:—

Men's Singles.—J. D. P. Wheatley beat F. R. Leighton Crawford, 6-4, 6-3, 6-2.

# The British Dominions Year Book 1924

Ladies' Singles.—Miss Ryan beat Mrs. Craddock (holder), 8-6, 6-3.

Men's Doubles.—J. D. P. Wheatley and F. L. Riseley beat A. D. Prebble and F. R. Leighton Crawford, 6-2, 7-9, 7-5.

Mixed Doubles.—J. D. P. Wheatley and Miss Ryan beat F. L. Riseley and Mrs. Craddock (holders), 6-3, 7-9, 7-6.

## WORCESTERSHIRE CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Malvern, June 2nd. Finals:—

Men's Singles.—C. E. Leo Lyle beat E. G. Bissek, 6-2, 4-6, 6-3.

Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. C. G. McIlquham beat Miss E. F. Rose (holder), 6-2, 6-3.

Men's Doubles.—W. Radcliffe and C. E. Leo Lyle beat Colonel C. W. Brierley and H. K. Lester, 6-4, 6-2.

Ladies' Doubles.—Miss Rose and Miss S. C. Lumley Ellis beat Mrs. Perrett and Mrs. McIlquham, 6-3, 6-4.

Mixed Doubles.—E. G. Bissek and Miss Rose beat W. Radcliffe and Miss Lumley Ellis, 1-6, 6-0, 6-2.

## PHYLLIS COURT TOURNAMENT.

May 19th.—

Men's Open Singles.—B. I. C. Norton beat F. M. B. Fisher, 6-4, 6-3.

Ladies' Open Singles.—Mrs. Craddock beat Mrs. H. Edgington, 2-6, 6-1, 6-2.

Men's Open Doubles.—F. M. B. Fisher and H. F. Hunt beat B. I. C. Norton and B. D. Helmore, 6-3, 6-3, 6-1.

Ladies' Open Doubles.—Miss P. Radcliffe and Miss N. Q. Platt beat Mrs. Edgington and Mrs. Craddock, 6-4, 6-3.

Open Mixed Doubles.—B. I. C. Norton and Mrs. D. Coleman beat Dr. A. H. Fyze and Mrs. A. H. de Steiger, 8-6, 6-2.

## SURREY CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Surbiton, May 26th. Results:—

Men's Level Singles.—R. Lycett beat B. I. C. Norton (holder), 3-6, 6-4, 6-1, 2-6, 7-5.

Ladies' Level Singles.—Miss Ryan (holder) beat Miss E. F. Rose, 3-6, 6-3, 6-2.

Men's Level Doubles.—R. Lycett and L. A. Godfree beat H. Roper Barrett and B. I. C. Norton, 6-3, 6-8, 7-5.

Ladies' Level Doubles.—Miss Ryan and Mrs. Satterthwaite beat Mrs. Youle and Miss Rose, 6-2, 6-1.

Level Mixed Doubles.—R. Lycett and Miss Ryan beat D. M. Greig and Mrs. Edgington, 6-0, 6-1.

## HARD COURTS LAWN TENNIS CHAMPIONSHIPS.

St. Cloud, May 26th.

Gents' Doubles.—Brugnon and Dupont beat Morpurgo and Aslangul, 10-12, 3-6, 6-2, 6-3, 6-4.

Ladies' Singles.—Mlle. Lenglen beat Miss McKane, 6-3, 6-3.

Gents' Singles.—W. M. Johnston beat J. W. Washer, 4-8, 6-2, 6-2, 4-6, 6-3.

Mixed Doubles.—Mlle. Lenglen and Cochet beat Miss McKane and Gilbert, 6-2, 10-8.

Ladies' Doubles.—Miss McKane and Mrs. Beamish beat Mlle. Lenglen and Mme. Golding, 6-2, 6-3.

## MIDDLESEX CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Chiswick Park, June 2nd. Results:—

Men's Singles.—B. I. C. Norton beat Greig, 8-6, 6-2.

Women's Singles.—Miss McKane beat Mrs. Mallory, 6-3, 6-2.

Men's Doubles.—Norton and Hillyard beat Doust and Wallis Myers, 6-3, 6-4, 6-3.

Women's Doubles.—Mrs. Lambert Chambers and Mrs. Satterthwaite beat Mrs. Mallory and Mrs. Edgington, 6-3, 6-1.

Mixed Doubles.—Crawley and Miss McKane beat Greig and Mrs. Lambert Chambers, 6-3, 6-3.

## WORCESTERSHIRE CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Malvern, January 2nd. Results:—

Men's Level Singles.—C. E. Leo Lyle beat E. G. Bissek, 6-2, 4-6, 6-3.

Women's Singles.—Mrs. C. G. McIlquham beat Miss E. F. Rose (holder), 6-2, 6-3.

Men's Level Doubles.—W. Radcliffe and C. E. Leo Lyle beat Col. C. W. Brierley and H. K. Lester, 6-4, 6-2.

Women's Doubles.—Miss E. F. Rose and Miss S. C. Lumley Ellis beat Mrs. Perrett and Mrs. McIlquham, 6-3, 6-4.

Mixed Doubles.—E. G. Bissek and Miss Rose beat W. Radcliffe and Miss Lumley Ellis, 1-6, 6-0, 6-2.

## WEST OF ENGLAND CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Bristol, June 2nd. Results:—

Men's Singles.—J. D. P. Wheatley beat F. R. L. Crawford, 6-4, 6-3, 6-2.

Women's Singles.—Miss Ryan beat Mrs. Craddock (holder), 8-6, 6-3.

Men's Doubles.—J. D. P. Wheatley and F. L. Riseley beat A. D. Prebble and F. R. L. Crawford, 6-2, 7-9, 7-5.

Women's Doubles.—Miss Ryan and Miss E. L. Colyer beat Mrs. Hannam and Miss G. B. Foster, 6-1, 6-2.

Mixed Doubles.—J. D. P. Wheatley and Miss Ryan beat F. L. Riseley and Mrs. Craddock (holders), 6-3, 7-9, 7-5.

Men's Gloucestershire Championship.—J. M. Boucher (holder) beat H. H. Yolland, 6-3, 6-1.

Women's Gloucestershire Championship.—Mrs. Hannam beat Mrs. H. B. Weston (holder), 5-7, 6-3, 6-0.

## NORTH LONDON CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Stamford Hill, June 9th. Results:—

Men's Singles.—Capt. N. Dicks beat E. B. N. Taylor, 6-2, 6-0, 6-1.

Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. R. C. Clayton beat Mrs. Beamish, 6-1, 6-2.

Men's Doubles.—F. M. B. Fisher and E. T. Lamb beat G. H. Booth and G. Crole-Rees, 6-4, 4-6, 6-4.

Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. Shepherd Barron and Mrs. Govell beat Miss Dransfield and Miss Hogarth, 6-1, 6-1.

Mixed Doubles.—J. M. Bell and Miss Hogarth beat H. Roper-Barrett and Mrs. Shepherd Barron, 16-14, 4-6, 7-5.

## KENT CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Beckenham, June 16. Results:—

Men's Singles.—W. M. Johnston beat D. M. Greig, 6-2, 6-3.

Ladies' Singles.—Miss Ryan beat Mrs. Satterthwaite, 6-3, 3-6, 6-3.

Men's Doubles.—Johnson and Wallis Myers beat D. M. Greig and W. C. Crawley, 6-4, 6-3.

Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. Lambert Chambers and Miss Ryan beat Mrs. Edgington and Miss McKane, 6-0, 6-3.

Mixed Doubles.—W. C. Crawley and Miss McKane beat H. Roper Barrett and Miss Ryan, 6-2, 6-3.

## LONDON CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Queens Club, June 28. Results:—

Men's Singles.—Vincent Richards beat S. M. Jacob, 6-2, 6-2.

Ladies' Singles.—Miss Ryan beat Mrs. Beamish, 6-3, 1-6, 6-2.  
 Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. R. Horsley and Mrs. H. Hume beat Miss M. Bersey and Miss Beauchamp, 6-2, 6-2.  
 Mixed Doubles.—P. M. Davson and Miss Ryan beat Greig and Mrs. Lambert Chambers, 5-7, 6-0, 6-4.  
 Services Doubles.—Lt.-Col. A. Berger and Comdr. J. M. Bell beat Major Aylmer and Captain N. Dicks, 6-3, 6-1.  
 Men's Doubles.—Carless and Luck beat Busby and Serin, 6-0, 6-3.

## WORLD'S LAWN CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Wimbledon, June 25th and July 7th.—  
 Results:—  
 Men's Singles.—W. M. Johnston (U.S.A.) beat F. T. Hunter (U.S.A.), 6-0, 6-3, 6-1.  
 Women's Singles.—Mlle. Lenglen beat Miss McKane, 6-2, 6-2.  
 Men's Doubles.—R. Lycett and L. A. Godfree (Great Britain) beat the Conde de Gomar and E. Flaquer (Spain), 6-3, 6-4, 3-6, 6-3.  
 Mixed Doubles.—R. Lycett (Great Britain) and Miss Ryan (U.S.A.) beat L. S. Deane (All India) and Mrs. Shepherd-Barron (Great Britain), 6-4, 7-5.  
 Ladies' Doubles.—Mlle. S. Lenglen (France) and Miss Ryan (U.S.A.) (holders) beat Miss J. Austin and Miss E. L. Colyer (Great Britain), 6-3, 6-1.  
 All England Plate.—J. Washer (Belgium) beat M. J. G. Ritchie (Great Britain), 6-3, 6-4.

## ESSEX CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Westcliff-on-Sea, July 14th. Results:—  
 Men's Singles.—J. Evers beat Dr. W. E. Cooke, 4-6, 7-5, 6-3, 6-1.  
 Ladies' Singles.—Miss M. G. Best beat Mrs. P. H. Wilkin, 6-2, 6-1.  
 Men's Doubles.—E. Yatman and J. Evers beat A. H. Billham and A. P. M. Hawes, 6-1, 6-0.  
 Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. F. B. Davies and Mrs. P. H. Wilkin beat Miss Norman and Miss M. G. Best, 6-3, 5-7, 7-5.  
 Mixed Doubles.—M. W. Whitmore and Miss Wilkin beat H. R. Whitmore and Miss G. A. Benton, 7-5, 6-2.

## LEICESTERSHIRE CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Leicester, July 14th. Results:—  
 Men's Singles.—C. P. Luck beat G. S. Fletcher, 6-0, 3-6, 6-0.  
 Ladies' Singles.—Miss Ryan beat Mrs. McIlquham, 6-0, 6-2.  
 Mixed Doubles.—G. R. Sherwell and Miss Ryan beat G. S. Fletcher and Mrs. Harding, 6-0, 6-1.  
 Ladies' Doubles.—Miss Ryan and Mrs. Parton beat Mrs. McIlquham and Miss Kelsey, 6-1, 6-2.

## EAST OF ENGLAND CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Felixstowe, July 14th.  
 Men's Singles.—S. M. Jacob beat D. M. Greig, 6-4, 6-4, 6-3.  
 Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. Clayton beat Mrs. Beamish, 1-6, 6-2, 10-8.  
 Mixed Doubles.—The Hon. Cecil Campbell and Mrs. Beamish beat A. F. Beam and Miss O. M. Walker, 6-2, 6-3.  
 Men's Doubles.—R. D. England and S. M. Jacob w.o. the Hon. Cecil Campbell and D. M. Greig scratched.  
 Ladies' Doubles.—Miss C. Beckingham and Miss E. Beckingham beat Mrs. Beamish and Mrs. Clayton, 1-6, 6-4, 6-3.

## WELSH CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Newport (Mon.), July 21st. Results:—  
 Men's Singles Championship.—J. M. Boucher beat C. L. Sweet-Escott, 6-3, 7-5, 8-6.  
 Ladies' Singles Championship.—Miss Raikes beat Mrs. Hannam (holder), 8-6, 0-6, 6-3.  
 Men's Doubles.—J. M. Boucher and H. Holgate beat E. C. Reed and H. A. Allen, 6-2, 8-6.  
 Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. Hannam and Miss G. B. Foster beat Miss S. Thomas and Miss D. James, 6-4, 6-2.  
 Mixed Doubles.—E. F. Duck and Miss Hogarth beat J. M. Boucher and Mrs. Hannam, 4-6, 6-3, 6-3.

## IRISH CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Dublin, July 21st. Results:—  
 Men's Singles.—G. F. Mackay beat F. Crosbie, 7-5, 6-0, 6-1.  
 Ladies' Singles.—Miss Ryan (holder) beat Mrs. Price, 6-1, 6-1.  
 Men's Doubles.—B. Haughton and L. A. Meldon beat H. M. Read and H. R. Price, 6-1, 6-3, 7-5.  
 Ladies' Doubles.—Miss Ryan and Mrs. Dudley beat Miss M. Haughton and Miss N. Haughton, 6-1, 6-4.  
 Mixed Doubles.—B. Haughton and Miss M. Haughton beat J. Miley and Mrs. Miley, 6-2, 6-3.

## CIVIL SERVICE CHAMPIONSHIPS.

London County Club, July 21st. Results:—  
 Men's Singles.—R. Dash beat A. C. Belgrave, 1-6, 6-3, 6-2, 6-3.  
 Ladies' Singles.—Miss A. E. Geer beat Miss H. M. Lovell, 6-2, 6-0.  
 Men's Doubles.—R. Dash and C. L. Philcox beat G. T. Weaver and E. C. Smith, 6-2, 6-1, 6-1.  
 Ladies' Doubles.—Miss Geer and Miss Marshall beat Miss Bulbeck and Miss Robinson, 6-3, 6-4.  
 Mixed Doubles.—W. L. Whitaker and Miss Marshall beat G. T. Weaver and Miss Turpitt, 6-0, 6-3.

## COUNTY CHAMPIONSHIPS.

New Wimbledon, July 24th.—Lancashire won the Men's Inter-county Lawn Tennis Championship, beating Surrey by 5 rubbers to one. The Women's County Championship was won by Surrey, who beat East of Scotland, winning the first six rubbers.

## WARWICKSHIRE CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Leamington, August 3rd. Results:—  
 Men's Singles.—C. P. Luck beat H. A. Carless, 4-6, 6-4, 6-1.  
 Women's Singles.—Mrs. Hannam beat Mrs. Nelson Smith, 6-1, 6-1.  
 Men's Doubles.—G. S. McKay and H. K. Lester beat C. P. Luck and H. A. Carless, 6-3, 6-2, 3-6, 6-1.  
 Women's Doubles.—Mrs. Hannam and Miss Foster beat Mrs. Nelson Smith and Mrs. Perrett, 6-2, 7-5.  
 Mixed Doubles.—G. S. McKay and Mrs. Hannam beat E. M. Jonklaas and Miss Ruault, 7-5, 6-4.

## NORTHUMBERLAND CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Newcastle-on-Tyne, August 4th.—Results:—  
 Men's Singles.—C. J. Tindell Green beat C. Branfoot, 2-6, 1-6, 6-3, 6-0, 6-3.  
 Ladies' Singles.—Miss R. Watson (holder) beat Miss L. Cadle, 7-5, 6-2.  
 Men's Doubles.—Dr. G. M. Elliott and P. D. B. Spence beat W. L. Clements and R. D. Watson, 7-5, 6-3, 6-4.

## The British Dominions Year Book 1924

Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. Robin Welsh and Miss R. Watson beat Miss K. B. Aitchison and Miss L. Cadle, 6-4, 6-0.

### ENGLISH WOMEN VICTORIOUS.

Seabright (New Jersey), August 2nd.—

At the annual invitation lawn tennis tournament, Miss McKane (Great Britain) beat Mrs. Lockhorn, 6-2, 6-1.

Mrs. Beamish (Great Britain) beat Mrs. Cole, 6-1, 8-6.

Mrs. Covell (Great Britain) beat Miss Hooker, 6-1, 6-1, and Mrs. Clayton (Great Britain) beat Miss Baker, 6-3, 6-3.

Norris Williams beat Brian Norton (Britain), 6-3, 6-3.

### HAMPSHIRE CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Bournemouth, August 11th. Results:—

Men's Singles.—Brame Hillyard beat Hon. F. M. B. Fisher, 6-3, 2-6, 6-2.

Ladies' Singles.—Miss E. F. Rose beat Miss E. E. Tanner, 6-4, 8-6.

Men's Doubles.—F. M. B. Fisher and W. H. Scott beat A. J. Vellegas and R. R. Boyd, 3-6, 6-4, 6-3.

Ladies' Doubles.—Miss Rose and Miss Tanner beat Mrs. A. Clayton and Mrs. Tuckey, 7-5, 7-5.

Mixed Doubles.—C. O. Tuckey and Mrs. Tuckey beat J. R. Blake and Miss Blake, 6-3, 6-1.

### ISLE OF WIGHT CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Ventnor, August 18th.

Men's Singles.—C. O. Tuckey beat F. H. Hayward, 6-3, 4-6, 6-4.

Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. Tuckey beat Mrs. Taylor, 6-2, 6-1.

Men's Doubles.—C. O. Tuckey and A. L. Irvine beat T. Curtis and C. Miller, 6-4, 6-1.

Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. Tuckey and Mrs. Goldberg, walk-over.

Mixed Doubles.—C. O. Tuckey and Mrs. Tuckey beat T. Pethick and Miss Tomblin, 3-6, 6-1, 6-1.

### U.S. NATIONAL TOURNAMENT.

Forest Hills, August 18th.

Mrs. Mallory, seven times woman lawn tennis champion of America, lost her title when, in the final of the U.S. national tournament, she was defeated by the Californian schoolgirl, Miss Helen Wills, 6-2, 6-1.

Miss McKane and Mrs. Covell of Great Britain won the doubles championship by defeating Miss Goss and Mrs. Wightman, 2-6, 6-2, 6-1.

### DERBYSHIRE CHAMPIONSHIPS.

August 18th.

Men's Singles.—E. D. McCrea (holder) beat "Dominigo," 6-3, 6-4.

Women's Singles.—The Hon. Mrs. Colston beat Miss P. M. Radcliffe, 6-0, 6-4.

Men's Doubles.—P. Widdas and L. West beat "Dominigo" and C. Goodall, 4-6, 6-2, 6-3.

Mixed Doubles.—S. N. Doust and Miss C. Beckingham beat L. West and Miss P. M. Radcliffe, 4-6, 6-2, 6-3.

All-England Women's Doubles Championship.—Miss C. Beckingham and Miss E. Beckingham beat Miss Platt and Miss Radcliffe, 6-3, 6-4.

### DORSET COUNTY CHAMPIONSHIPS.

August 25th.—

Men's Singles.—W. F. Martin beat C. O. Tuckey, 6-4, 7-5.

Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. Tuckey beat Miss K. Lidderdale, 6-3, 6-3.

Men's Doubles.—W. F. Martin and C. O. Tuckey beat A. V. Bridge and H. C. Slater, 6-3, 6-2.

Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. Clayton and Mrs. Tuckey beat Miss Lidderdale and Miss de Putron, 6-3, 4-6, 8-6.

Mixed Doubles.—A. V. Bridge and Miss Lidderdale beat A. C. Hunter and Mrs. A. Clayton, 6-3, 6-1.

### SCOTTISH HARD COURTS CHAMPIONSHIPS.

St. Andrews, August 25th.—

Men's Singles.—G. M. Elliott beat E. C. MacIntosh, 6-4, 4-6, 6-4, 6-2.

Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. Robin Welsh beat Miss M. K. Jenkins, 6-2, 6-0.

Mixed Doubles.—G. M. Elliott and Mrs. Robin Welsh beat C. M. Walker and Miss A. B. Macdonald, 6-1, 7-5.

Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. Robin Welsh and Miss B. Stevenson beat Miss A. B. Macdonald and Miss J. Riddick, 5-7, 6-2, 6-2.

### SOUTH OF ENGLAND CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Eastbourne, September 16th.—

R. C. Ramaswami won the men's singles in the South of England Lawn Tennis Championships by beating F. Gordon Lowe, 6-1, 8-6, 10-8, in the final. In the women's singles final, Miss P. Holcroft beat Miss C. Tyrrell, 6-3, 6-3.

### WELSH COVERED COURTS CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Llandudno, October 6th.

Sir G. A. Thomas, the British chess champion, retained his title of Welsh Covered Courts Lawn Tennis Champion with a victory over W. G. Ireland by 6-4, 6-2, 8-6. The ladies' singles championship was won by Mrs. B. C. Covell, who beat Miss Maltby by 6-3, 6-3.

### LONDON COVERED COURTS CHAMPIONSHIPS.

Queens Club, October. Finals of the London Covered Courts Championships:—

Men's Singles.—J. B. Gilbert beat D. M. Greig, 6-1, 6-3, 7-5.

Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. B. C. Covell beat Mrs. Shepherd-Barron, 6-1, 6-2.

Men's Doubles Championship.—C. H. Kingsley and C. Ramaswami beat F. M. B. Fisher and H. Hunt, 3-6, 6-3, 6-2, 3-6, 8-6.

Mixed Doubles Championship.—D. M. Greig and Mrs. Lambert Chambers beat L. S. Deane and Mrs. Shepherd-Barron, 6-4, 10-8.

### WRESTLING.

#### CHAMPIONSHIPS

Stamford Bridge, August 11th.—These events were included in the Annual Sports of the City of London Police.

Heavy-Weight Cumberland and Westmorland Championship of England.—J. Shepherd, City of London Police, retained the title, with five falls.

The Light-weight Catch-as-Catch-Can Championship was won by C. E. Bacon, Borough Polytechnic.

### YACHTING.

#### COWES.

August 8th to 10th.—In most delightful weather, the King and Queen arrived at Cowes on August 4th to take part in what proved to be a most brilliant Cowes Week. They were on board the Victoria and Albert, together with Prince George, Princess Victoria, the Duke of Connaught and a numerous company. Soon after the Royal yacht had dropped anchor, the usual welcome was given to the King, as Admiral of the Royal Yacht Squadron, by leading representatives of the Squadron. The Duke of Leeds, Commodore of the Squadron, Sir Richard Williams Bulkeley, the Vice-Commodore, and Mr. Pasley, the Secretary, went across to the Royal yacht and offered the



King a respectful greeting from the Squadron. Later on, the Duke of Leeds headed a deputation which presented a picture of "Britannia Racing in the Solent," by Mr. Norman Wilkinson, to the King. In acknowledging the gift, His Majesty mentioned that the Britannia was built by his father in 1893. Up to the present she had won 161 first prizes and 89 other prizes.

The first big race, over a 39 mile course in the Solent, included the Britannia, with the King on board, Mr. Charles F. Johnson's Moonbeam, Mrs. E. R. Workman's Nyria, and Mr. Richard H. Lee's Terpsichore. It was a handicap for yachts of any rig over 75 tons for the Royal London Yacht Club prizes of £60 first and £20 second. Britannia was first home, but as she had given 25 min. 21 sec. to Moonbeam and 5 min. 51 sec. to Nyria, and as Moonbeam finished only 5 min. 51 sec. behind, with Nyria just in front, the King's yacht lost to both.

In the handicap for yachts under 75 tons, Paula III., owned by Mr. K. H. Preston, won easily.

The new Fife boat Vanity (Messrs. J. R. Payne and C. H. Reid) won in the 12-metres class from Mr. Frederick Last's Norreen.

Another Crouch-owned boat in Joyeuse won the small handicap class, and the match for the international 6-metres class was won by Col. Peel's Suzette.

#### THE KING'S CUP.

There was some interesting racing on the Tuesday. One of the chief items in the programme was the annual race for the King's Cup, which attracted half a dozen starters, including three old cup winners in Moonbeam (Mr. C. P. Johnson), Cariad (Colonel John Gretton), and Valdora (Sir William Portal), Moonbeam, which last won in 1920, was successful.

The King sailed in Britannia again in the handicap for yachts of and above 50 tons, and this time had the satisfaction of being in the winning boat, Mrs. E. R. Workman's Nyria being second. The match for the 12 metres classes was won by Vanity, the new Fife boat, which had so far been exceptionally successful in the class.

In the race for the handicap for yachts of 100 tons and upwards on the Wednesday, Britannia was the scratch boat, but was not at all suited by the light weather conditions, and was led home by Mrs. E. R. Workman's Nyria, which won easily without calling upon its time allowance. Cariad (Col. Gretton) took second prize.

Mr. K. H. Preston's Paula III. won in the under 100 tons handicap, beating another old 15-metre boat in Dorina (Mr. J. S. Highfield) by over 16 min. Moonbeam (Mr. C. P. Johnson), which won the King's Cup, was a poor third.

In the race for the Town Prize of £100, subscribed by the inhabitants of Cowes, over a course of 40 miles, Britannia finished first, but Mrs. Workman's Bermudian rigged Nyria won on time allowance by just under three minutes.

The struggle between Mr. K. H. Preston's Paula III. and Mr. H. A. Andreae's Candida in the under 100-ton handicap was very keen, the former winning by the narrow margin of 16 seconds.

On the day of the funeral of the late President Harding of America, the chief race was postponed and all flags were half-mast. There were, however, four starters in the handicap for yachts of 35 tons and not exceeding 100 tons. Candida (Mr. H. A. Andreae) won for the first time during the week.

The last day's racing was almost a fiasco, there was so little wind. In the handicap for yachts over 100 tons Thames measurement, His Majesty and the Duke of Connaught were in the Britannia when she was making preparations for the start. The other in the contest were Terpsichore, Cariad, Nyria, and Valdora. The battery gun was fired in a dead calm, not one of the craft being able to move forward. For nearly an hour not a boat's length forward was made. The course was shortened by half, making it twenty three miles, but it took nearly ten hours to cover that distance. The winner was Nyria, with Terpsichore second. It was not a race, but a mere drift. Britannia was third.

#### BRITISH-AMERICAN CUP.

A particularly interesting event was the contest for the British-American Cup. This was a team race for eight yachts of the six metres international class. The four British yachts competing were Reg, Suzette, Capelle and Coila III. The United States yachts were Clytie, Lea, Ingomar, and Hawk. There was a series of six races. The final race was sailed at Ryde on August 16th. The British team won the Cup which the Americans captured after a series of races in Oyster Bay, New York, in the previous September. Great Britain scored 24 points and the United States 12, making totals of 129 for Great Britain and 86 for the United States.

#### RAMSGATE WEEK.

July 16th, 17th, 18th, 19th.

The annual four days regatta of the Royal Temple Yacht Club, popularly known as the Ramsgate Week, was most successful. The chief race of the first day was a match for the 12 metre class. This resulted in a win for the cutter Sirocco, owned by Mr. P. de G. Benson.

The open handicap for yachts exceeding 35 tons, belonging to any recognised British or foreign yacht club, for the Gold Cup presented by the town of Ramsgate, was won by Mr. J. W. Cook's cutter, Thanet.

The King's cutter, Britannia, was the winner in a handicap for yachts exceeding 100 tons. She beat Mrs. E. R. Workman's Nyria. The Britannia did wonderfully well during the season, and upon her return to Cowes from the Clyde and Belfast on July 11th was flying nine prize flags, six firsts and three seconds.

#### INTERNATIONAL RACING.

Ryde, July 17th, 18th, 19th.

The first race for the Coupe International du Cercle de la Voile de Paris, under the burgee of the Royal Thames Yacht Club, resulted in a win for Cordella (Mr. N. Ezshaw) over the French boat Ouiva (M. Michel Houyvet). The Cordella also beat the Ouiva in the second and third races, and thus retained the cup.

#### THE SEAWANHAKA CUP.

Rothsay, August 30th.—Mr. F. J. Stephen's six-metre yacht Coila III. won the fifth race for the Seawanhaka Cup against Mr. J. F. Birmingham's American Challenger, Lea, and the Cup remained in the custody of the Royal Northern Yacht Club. Finishing times:—Coila III. (winner), 2 hrs. 20 min. 5 sec., Lea, 4 hrs. 22 min. 28 sec.

#### JOCKEYS' CHAMPIONSHIP.

The flat racing season ended on November 24th. The Jockeys' Championship resulted in a dead heat between Elliott and Donoghue. Each had ridden 89 winners. This is the first time within recollection that two jockeys have tied at the end of the season.



# Index.

- Agriculture, 13, 14, 16, 26, 27,  
209-217, 249-259.
- Credits (Act and Bill), 112, 213  
214.
- Ministry of, Report, 210.
- Rates Act, 112.
- and Stable Prices, 27, 172
- Air Force, 22, 103, 128-129, 132-141.
- Air Force Estimates, 138-139.
- America, U.S of, 12, 23, 56, 82-83,  
94, 148, 180-181, 208, 227,  
239-241.
- Amery, Rt. Hon. L.C.M.S., 22, 26,  
108, 119, 121-123.
- Appleton, Mr. W. A., 220-222, 224.
- Armenia, 157.
- Army, 55, 124-131.
- Estimates, 124.
- Ascension Island, 68, 124.
- Ashley, Col. Wilfrid, 108, 125.
- Askwith, Lord, 223-224.
- Asquith, Mr., 47, 115, 116.
- Asfor, Lady, 112, 284.
- Australia, 26, 59-60, 72, 147, 157,  
177-179.
- Shipping and 228.
- Austria, 12, 83, 99, 157.
- Aviation, 29, 131-149.
- Baldwin, Rt. Hon. Stanley, 13, 18,  
80, 93, 108, 109, 117-118,  
141, 153-154, 158, 187, 216.
- Baltic and Central European States,  
148.
- Barbadoes, 75, 249, 250, 251, 256.
- Barlow, Rt. Hon. Sir M., 16, 108.
- Belgium, 78, 84, 85, 90, 157.
- Bermuda, 55, 73.
- Beveridge, Sir William, 191.
- Bevin, Mr., 194-195.
- Birkenhead, Earl of, 88, 104.
- Birth-rate Returns, 66.
- Bledisloe, Lord, 209.
- Bridgeman, Rt. Hon. W. C., 108,  
111.
- British Columbia, 56, 74.
- British Guiana, 19, 50, 75, 250, 251,  
256.
- Bruce, Rt. Hon. S. M., 17, 26, 49,  
72, 217.
- Buckley, Lieut.-Col., 25.
- Budget of 1923-24, 153-154.
- Bulgaria, 93.
- Burton, Hon. Mr., 17, 183.
- By-Elections, 107, 113-115.
- Cabinet, The, 92, 108.
- Canada, 26, 56, 63, 73, 147, 157.
- American Investments in, 179-181.
- Capital Levy, 15, 164, 196.
- Cave, K.C., Rt. Hon. Viscount, 108.
- Cecil, K.C., Rt. Hon. Lord R., 21,  
108, 109.
- Ceylon, 71, 175, 251, 252, 253.
- Chamberlain, Rt. Hon. Austen, 104,  
106.
- Mr. Joseph, 249, 253, 261, 262.
- Rt. Hon. N., 105, 108, 109, 111,  
153, 155.
- China, 60-61, 236-248.
- Coal, 64-65, 193, 238, 254.
- Coalfields of China, 60, 238-239.
- Colombo, 55.
- Communications, Empire, 28, 55-59.
- Conferences, Ambassadors, 21, 93.
- Experts (Reparations), 94.
- Labour Party, 195-196.
- Lausanne, 80, 81, 88.
- Imperial, 11, 14, 17-24, 48-53.
- Imperial Economic, 24-30, 179,  
183, 197, 216.
- Imperial Education, 270-276.
- Inter-Allied, 77, 78.
- Miners Federation, 193.
- Constantine, King, 80.
- Corn Production Act, 213, 214.
- Cotton, 14, 176, 193, 207-209, 238,  
250, 257-259.
- in China, 241-243.
- Crewe, Marquess of, 115.
- Cuno, Herr, 83, 92.
- Curzon of Kedleston, K.G., Rt.  
Hon. Marquess, 20, 21, 81, 84, 89,  
107, 108.
- Czecho-Slovakia, 157.
- Debts, British to America, 19, 80,  
89, 110, 154, 158, 174.
- Inter-Allied, 89-92.
- Maturing, 156.
- Derby, K.G., Rt. Hon. Earl of 108.
- Devonshire, K.G., Duke of, 19, 52,  
53, 108.
- Disarmament, Labour and, 15, 196.
- Education, 263-282.
- and African Native, 19.
- and Women 281, 291.
- Egypt, 55.
- Elections, General, 11, 13-16, 118,  
285, Nov., 1922, 104-106 (*see*

- By-Elections*).
- Irish Free State, 118.
- Empire, British, 21-22, 26, 48-53, 55-67, 130-131, 140, 141, 174-186, 248, 252.
- Synopsis of, 68-76.
- Empire Cruise, 12, 22, 123.
- Exchange, Foreign, 152.
- Expenditure, 153, 155.
- Exports, 163, 175-180, 182, 187.
- Table of, 189.
- Fiji, 50, 52, 76, 251.
- Finance, National, 151-160, and Empire Development, 29.
- Forestry (Transfer of Woods) Act, 112.
- France, 18, 20, 56, 77-81, 83, 84-85, 86-87, 89-93, 147, 157, 158, 228.
- George V., H.M. King, 24, 53, 76, 93, 107, 110-112, 118, 288, 292, 316-317.
- Germany, 12, 20-21, 77-81, 83, 84-87, 89-90, 91-93, 94, 100-101, 159-160.
- Gold Standard and Prices, 30, 170.
- Great Britain, 56, 57-58, 63-67, 68, 76, 78-80, 89-92, 94, 122, 158, 197.
- Greece, 93, 157.
- Griffith-Boscawen, Sir A., 105, 209, 215.
- Harding, The late President, 82, 317.
- Health, 260-263, 277, 290.
- Hoare, Bt., D.S.O., Rt. Hon. Sir S., 29, 108, 109, 133, 139, 140, 142.
- Hong-Kong, 58, 71, 122.
- Horne, Sir Robert, 104, 153.
- Housing, 111, 196 (*see Rent*).
- Imperial and Economic Conferences (*see Conferences*).
- Imperial Institute, 30, 253.
- Imports, 175-180, 182, 187.
- Table of, 188.
- Increase of Fees Act, 112.
- India, 12, 22, 25, 31-54, 61, 71, 147, 175-177, 229, 238, 256.
- Industrial Insurance, 14, 16, 217-225.
- Act, 221-222.
- Industry, 144, 146, 176, 178, 180, 181, 193, 248-260.
- Innes, Hon. Mr. C. A., 25, 28, 41.
- Intoxicating Liquor Act, 112, 284.
- Iraq, 20, 76, 135-136, 139, 140.
- Ireland, 68, 103, 123.
- Irish Free State, 12, 18, 21, 111, 123, 125, 187.
- Act, 106.
- Elections, 118.
- Iron, 60, 64, 239.
- Italy, 21, 93, 147, 157.
- Jamaica, 75, 250, 251, 252.
- Japan, 56, 148, 149-151, 236, 238, 242.
- Joynton-Hicks, Rt. Hon. Sir W., 108.
- Kenya, 19, 23, 42-44, 49, 50, 61, 69.
- Keynes, Professor, 191.
- Labour, 190-198, 223, 224.
- Ministry of, 191, 192.
- Law, Mr. Bonar, 17, 79, 90, 104, 105, 193, 213, 215.
- Death of, 107.
- League of Nations, 13, 15, 18, 21, 82, 83, 93, 118.
- Lloyd George, Mr. 13, 79, 104, 115, 116, 118, 215.
- Lloyd-Greame, Rt. Hon. Sir P., 11, 24, 27, 108.
- Malta, 55, 68.
- Mandates, 20, 76, 124.
- Matrimonial Causes Act, 112.
- Mauritius, 56, 69, 251.
- Mercantile Marine, 229-235.
- Memel, 80, 97, 123.
- Migration, 25, 42, 63, 66-67, 217.
- Mines Act, 112.
- Natal, 50, 70.
- Navy, 22, 55, 58, 72, 119-124, 136-137, 141.
- Estimates, 121.
- Newfoundland, 75, 182.
- New Zealand, 49, 73, 147, 157, 179.
- Nigeria, 69, 208, 251, 254.
- Novar, Rt. Hon. Viscount, 105, 108, 109.
- Nyasaland, 69, 208.
- Oil, 123, 178.
- Ormsby-Gore, Hon. W., 24, 108, 251.
- Pease, Mr. J. Beaumont, 212.
- Peel, Rt. Hon. Viscount, 17, 22, 108.
- Perim, 55, 71.
- Philippines, 58, 87-88.
- Philpott, Mrs., 113, 284.
- Poincaré, M., 20, 77, 78, 79, 91, 93, 94.
- Poland, 82, 157.

- Poor Law Relief Statistics, 197-198.  
 Pope, His Holiness the, 87.  
 Population, 19, 63-66.  
     China, 60, 236-237.  
 Portugal, 157, 228.  
 Preference, 14, 25, 26, 27, 180, 186,  
     213, 217.  
 Prince of Wales, H.R.H. the, 144,  
     310.  
 Prohibition Enforcement Laws, 86.  
 Proportional Representation  
     Society, 106.  
 Protection, 13, 15, 26, 117, 187,  
     212, 215, 217.  
     In India, 40.  
 Public Works Loans Acts, 112.  
  
 Racial Question, 42, 59-60, 61.  
 Railways (Authorisation of Works)  
     Act, 112.  
 Reading, G.C.S.I., G.C.B., Earl of,  
     40, 42, 71.  
 Rent and Housing, 105, 111.  
 Rent and Mortgage Interest Re-  
     strictions, 110, 111, 198-207.  
 Reparations, 20, 77-79, 84, 85, 86-  
     87, 88-92, 94, 110, 158-160.  
 Revenue, 155.  
 Rhodesia, 19, 69.  
 Ronaldshay, Lord, 35.  
 Roumania, 157.  
 Rowlatt Act of 1919, 35.  
 Rubber, 259-260.  
 Ruhr, 11, 18, 79, 80-81, 83, 85.  
 Russia, 82, 86, 101-102, 148, 157.  
  
 Safeguarding of Industries Act, 211.  
 St. Helena, 56, 69, 124.  
 Salisbury, K.G., Rt. Hon. Marquess,  
     21, 108.  
 Salmond, Air Marshal Sir John, 140,  
     141.  
 Salt Tax, 40, 64.  
 Sanders, Bt., Rt. Hon. Sir. R. A.,  
     16, 108, 214.  
 Sapru, Sir T. B., 17, 46, 48-53.  
 Sastri, Rt. Hon. S. S., 42, 46.  
 Science, 120, 126, 209, 248-263.  
 Sex Disqualification Act, 283.  
 Shipping, 29, 58, 61, 225-234.  
     Lloyd's Returns, 234-235.  
     Subsidy, America and, 12, 227.  
 Simon, Sir John, 116, 264.  
 Singapore Base, 22, 55, 58, 121-123,  
     124, 252.  
 Smuts, General, 17, 18-19, 21, 23,  
     25, 50, 52, 53.  
 South Africa, 49-50, 51, 53, 56, 61,  
     63, 70, 76, 147, 157, 182, 183, 208  
     South America, 123, 148, 209.  
     Spain, 93.  
     Special Constables Act, 112.  
     Stabilising Prices, 168, 172, 217.  
     Strikes, 12, 193-195.  
     Suez Canal, 58.  
     Sugar, 27, 175, 249, 256-257.  
     Sutherland, K.G., His Grace the  
         Duke of, 108, 133, 144, 145.  
     Swaraj in India, 12, 35.  
  
     Tariffs (*see Protection*).  
     Tanganyika, 50, 76.  
     Taxation, 152, 154.  
     Tonnage, Shipping, 231, 234-235.  
     Trade, 12, 14, 18, 24, 152, 174-186,  
         226.  
         Returns, Board of, 187-189.  
     Trades Union Congress, 196.  
     Transvaal, 50, 70.  
     Trinidad, 75, 250, 251, 252.  
     Turkey, 20, 80, 81-82, 88, 94, 110.  
  
     Uganda, 50, 52, 70.  
     Unemployment, 13, 14, 15, 17, 190-  
         191,  
         Insurance, 110, 190, 222-223.  
         Shipping and, 230.  
         and Stable Prices, 166.  
     Universities of Oxford and Cam-  
         bridge Act, 112, 281.  
  
     Versailles, Treaty of, 79, 82, 84, 85  
         86, 91.  
     Vincent, Sir W., 46.  
     Volstead Law, 86.  
  
     Washington, 87, 119, 122, 124.  
     Wealth per head, British, 161.  
         Russian, 162.  
     Wei-Hai-Wei, 72, 124.  
     West Indies, 19, 55, 75, 262.  
     Wheat, 175, 178, 210, 214, 228, 254-  
         256.  
     Wilson, Lt.-Col. Rt. Hon. Leslie,  
         105, 109, 113.  
     Women, 16, 67, 112, 113, 264, 281,  
         282-291.  
     Women in Sport, 292, 293, 296, 303,  
         305, 306, 307, 316.  
     Wood, Rt. Hon. E. F. L., 19, 108,  
         264, 267, 269, 270, 281.  
     Worthington-Evans, Rt. Hon. Sir  
         L., 28, 104, 108, 109.  
  
     York, H.R.H. Duke of, 270, 288.









# EAGLE, STAR AND BRITISH DOMINIONS INSURANCE COMPANY LIMITED

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Authorised Capital - £3,000,000  
Subscribed Capital - £2,998,425  
Paid-up Capital - £1,092,896  
Assets Exceed - £20,000,000

## *Bankers:*

THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

MIDLAND BANK, Ltd.

LLOYDS BANK, Ltd.

NATIONAL PROVINCIAL & UNION BANK OF ENGLAND, Ltd.

## *Chairman & Managing Director:*

Sir EDWARD M. MOUNTAIN, Bt., J.P.

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| FIRE     | MARINE    | LIFE  |
|          | ANNUITIES |       |
| ACCIDENT |           | MOTOR |

Burglary, Personal Accident,  
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Fidelity Guarantee, Licence, Plate Glass, Pluvius,  
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"ALL-IN" POLICIES for HOUSEHOLDERS

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